

**AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE EXTENT TO WHICH THE ZIMBABWEAN
GOVERNMENT AND CIVIL SOCIETY HAVE IMPLEMENTED MILLENNIUM
DEVELOPMENT GOAL NUMBER 3 (GENDER EQUALITY AND EMPOWERMENT
OF WOMEN): THE CASE OF WARD 33 OF MT DARWIN DISTRICT IN
ZIMBABWE**

by

WINNIE DEKETE

submitted in accordance with the requirements for
the degree of

MASTER OF ADMINISTRATION

in the subject

DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: MS M J RAKOLOJANE

January 2014

DECLARATION

I declare that **An investigation into the extent to which the Zimbabwean Government and civil society have implemented Millennium Development Goal Number 3 (gender equality and empowerment of women): The case of Ward 33 of Mt Darwin District in Zimbabwe** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. I declare that this work has not been submitted before for any other degree at any other institution.

.....

Signature

.....

DATE

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to the ALMIGHTY GOD, who made this work possible.

The LORD allowed me to survive an almost fatal stroke soon after my field research. When at times I felt discouraged, He gave me hope and kept me strong. This hope enabled me to complete this work.

To my loving husband, Morgan, my children, Kuzivakwashe, Shammah and Jayden, for whom I do everything, I thank you for being inspirational to me. I continually want to do more so that I can be an example of success in your lives. To my parents, you are the most amazing gifts life has ever given me. I thank you for everything.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My heartfelt thanks and appreciation go to the following people who in their unique and most dedicated ways assisted me through the time of this research:

My supervisor, Moipone Rakolojane, your patience, firmness, guidance, advice and consistent support are beyond price.

MT Darwin district authorities and Ward 33 local leadership for allowing me to carry out this research in their locality.

My parents, I thank you for all the support and for your believing in me.

The Ward 33 community, you have been so cooperative and supportive in giving me your honest opinions. I never take this for granted.

My friends, especially Nyasha Madziyire, who kept instilling in me the 'we can' attitude as we worked towards finishing the study. Rufaro Gwarada, for impressing on me the attitude of excellence, you are more than a sister and friend. Mwazvita Chitofu and Richard Mateta for playing a crucial part during the field research. My heartfelt appreciation to you dears.

ABSTRACT

Girls in rural areas face a number of challenges in their pursuit of basic education, empowerment and gender equality. This thesis explores the extent to which gender equality and empowerment of women have been achieved in education in ward 33 of Mt Darwin. At the centre is what Zimbabwean government and civil society organisations such as Campaign for female education (Camfed) have done to implement strategies addressing challenges affecting implementation and achievement of MDG 3. A multi-method research strategy, including focus group discussions, questionnaires administration and interviews, was used in the data collection process. The findings of the study show reciprocal linkage between education, empowerment and gender equality. Ward 33 requires integration in approach from assisting agencies and the general populace if Millennium Development Goal 3 is to be achieved. Results showed the multiple barriers girls face in the process of accessing education within the homes, along the way to school and within the school system itself. Camfed and government's interventions have been pointed out to contributing to the achievement of MDG 3 in the ward. Women's quest for equality is evident. Specific actions recommended after this research include the need for MOESAC to strategically post qualified teachers in rural areas, sensitization and empowerment programmes targeting men, civil society organisations and government ministries working with women to intensify advocacy, capacity building and leadership trainings for women.

Overall recommendation is that there is need to implement MDG 3 beyond 2015 if rural women are to be integrated into the MDG 3 empowerment and gender equality agenda.

Key words: MDG 3, rural areas, girls' education, gender equality, women empowerment.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION	III
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	IV
ABSTRACT	V
TABLE OF CONTENTS	VII
LIST OF FIGURES.....	XV
CHAPTER 1	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	2
1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM.....	6
1.4. GENERAL OBJECTIVE.....	8
1.4.1 SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES	8
1.5 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY	8
1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY	11

1.7 LITERATURE REVIEW	14
1.8 MOUNT DARWIN AND WARD 33 SCOPE	16
1.9. IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY	18
1.10 CHAPTER OUTLINE	19
CHAPTER 2	22
LITERATURE REVIEW	22
2.1 INTRODUCTION	22
2.2 DEFINITION OF TERMS	22
2.2.1 <i>Definition of empowerment</i>	23
2.2.2 <i>Definition of gender equality</i>	25
2.2.3 <i>Parity in education</i>	26
2.3 THE LINK BETWEEN EDUCATION AND EMPOWERMENT	27
2.4 THE LINK BETWEEN EDUCATION AND GENDER.....	30
2.5 AN ANALYSIS OF THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK.....	33
2.5.1 <i>Rights-based framework</i>	33
2.6 TRENDS IN EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE	36

2.7 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN ZIMBABWE	39
2.8 ZIMBABWE EDUCATION SYSTEM BEFORE INDEPENDENCE IN 1980.	40
2.9 ZIMBABWE’S EDUCATION SYSTEM AFTER INDEPENDENCE	41
2.10 ECONOMIC STRUCTURAL ADJUSTMENT PROGRAMME AND THE DECADE OF CRISIS	43
2.11 PROTOCOLS, DECLARATIONS AND LEGAL FRAMEWORKS SUPPORTING GENDER EQUALITY AND WOMEN EMPOWERMENT	45
2.12 CONCLUSION.....	47
CHAPTER 3.....	48
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	48
3.1 INTRODUCTION.....	48
3.2 RESEARCH AREA.....	48
3.2.1 <i>Economic activities in Ward 33</i>	50
3.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY USED	51
3.3.1 <i>Qualitative data</i>	51
3.3.2 <i>Quantitative data</i>	53
3.4 THE CASE STUDY METHOD.....	54

3.4.1 ADVANTAGES OF A CASE STUDY METHOD.....	55
3.5 ETHICAL ISSUES AND PROTOCOLS.....	55
3.6 TRAINING AND RECRUITING RESEARCH ASSISTANTS	58
3.7 SAMPLING AND SAMPLE SIZE.....	59
3.8 SAMPLING METHODS USED.....	63
3.8.1 Purposeful sampling method explained in detail	64
3.8.2 Random sampling method	65
3.9 DATA COLLECTION METHODS AND RESEARCH TOOLS	66
3.9.1 Focus group discussions.....	66
3.9.2 One-on-one interviews	68
3.9.3 QUESTIONNAIRE OUTLINE	69
3.10 SUPPLEMENTARY SURVEY.....	70
3.11 RATINGS USED IN THE STUDY	71
3.12 DATA ANALYSIS	72
3.13 CONCLUSION	73
CHAPTER 4.....	74

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	74
4.1 INTRODUCTION.....	74
4.2 PARTICIPANTS' DEMOGRAPHIES.....	74
<i>4.2.1 Age categories of informants.....</i>	<i>75</i>
<i>4.2.2 Gender of informants</i>	<i>76</i>
<i>4.2.4 Marital status of respondents</i>	<i>78</i>
4.3 WARD 33 STATISTICS ON PASS RATES AND COMPLETION RATES.....	79
4.4 BARRIERS TO ACCESS, RETENTION AND COMPLETION OF BASIC EDUCATION	81
<i>4.4.1 Social and environmental factors</i>	<i>81</i>
4.4.2 ECONOMIC FACTORS	84
4.4.3 CULTURAL FACTORS.....	86
4.4.4 ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS	87
4.5 A COMPARISON OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION BARRIERS	90
4.6 EXTENT TO WHICH BOYS AND GIRLS REMAIN IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL.....	95

4.7 FACTORS AFFECTING GIRLS IN ACCESSING AND COMPLETING BASIC EDUCATION	96
4.8 ROLE OF CAMFED IN GIRLS' EDUCATION, ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT AND GENDER EQUALITY	97
<i>4.8.1 Mother support groups</i>	99
<i>4.8.2 Safety Net Fund</i>	101
4.9 AREAS OF IMPROVEMENT FOR CAMFED	102
4.10 AREAS OF IMPROVEMENT FOR THE MINISTRY OF WOMEN AFFAIRS, GENDER AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT	103
4.11 AREAS OF IMPROVEMENT FOR THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, ARTS, SPORT AND CULTURE	104
4.12 RESPONDENTS' GENERAL AWARENESS AND UNDERSTANDING OF GENDER EQUALITY	105
4.13 RESPONDENTS' AWARENESS AND UNDERSTANDING OF WOMEN ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT	108
4.14 OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN EMPOWERMENT AND GENDER EQUALITY	110
4.15 WARD 33 PERSPECTIVE ON VALUABLE RESOURCES	111

4.16 CONCLUSION.....	113
CHAPTER 5	114
CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	114
5.1 INTRODUCTION	114
5.2 MAJOR FINDINGS	114
5.3 EDUCATION AND ITS INFLUENCE ON GIRLS' ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT AND GENDER EQUALITY.....	117
5.4. THE ROLE PLAYED BY CAMFED AND GOVERNMENT IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GIRL CHILD.	118
5.5 DISCUSSION	119
5.6 OVERAL RECOMMENDATIONS	124
5.7 RECOMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	126
5.8 CONCLUSION.....	127
CHAPTER 6	128
SUMMARY OF THE DISSERTATION AND FURTHER RECOMENDATIONS.....	128
6.1 INTRODUCTION.....	128
6.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT AND METHODOLOGY USED.	129

6.3 INSIGHTS, KNOWLEDGE AND INSPIRATION DRAWN FROM THE RESEARCH	129
6.4 FURTHER RECOMMENDATIONS	130
6.5 CONCLUSION	131
BIBLIOGRAPHY	132
APPENDIX 1: ONE ON ONE QUESTIONNAIRE.....	147
APPENDIX 2: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION WARM UP QUESTIONNAIRE	152
APPENDIX 3: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION QUESTIONNAIRE GUIDE	153
APPENDIX 4: SUPPLEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE	157
LIST OF TABLES	
Table 2.1: Primary completion rates trend by gender, Zimbabwe 2000–2004	37
Table 2.2: Secondary school completion rates Form 1–4 by gender and parity index Zimbabwe 2000-2004. (All figures below are given as percentages)	37
Table 2.3: Secondary school completion rates by gender and province, Zimbabwe 2004	38
Table 3.1: Summary of study population	62
Table 4.3.1 Official Statistics from Mt Darwin District Education Office.....	79

Table 4.5: Factors affecting primary and secondary school students.....	86
---	----

LIST OF FIGURES

<i>Figure 2.4: Analysis of female dropouts in rural Zimbabwe (Camfed, 2012:7).....</i>	<i>39</i>
<i>Figure 4.1: Research Participants by age.....</i>	<i>75</i>
<i>Figure 4.2.2: Research participants disaggregated by gender.....</i>	<i>76</i>
<i>Figure 4.3: Education Levels of participants.....</i>	<i>77</i>
<i>Figure 4.3.1.1: Official 2013 statistics from Mt Darwin education Office.....</i>	<i>81</i>
<i>Figure 4.4: Marital status of respondents</i>	<i>78</i>
<i>Figure 4.5: Causes of school dropout in ward 33</i>	<i>93</i>
<i>Figure 4.5.3: Camfed Zimbabwe 2012 dropout survey.....</i>	<i>94</i>
<i>Figure 4.6: Opinions on girls' and boys' chances of remaining in school.....</i>	<i>95</i>
<i>Figure 4.7: Understanding of gender equality.....</i>	<i>108</i>
<i>Figure 4.8: Assets considered valuable in the home.....</i>	<i>111</i>

ACRONYMS

AU	African Union
BEAM	Basic Educational Assistance Module
BPfA	Beijing Platform for Action
Camfed	Campaign for Female Education
CBO	Community-based Organisation
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CRC	Commission for Rural Communities (UK)
DFID	Department for International Development (UK)
EC	European Community
EFA	Education for All
ESAP	Economic Structural Adjustment Programme
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
G8	Group of Eight Countries
GAD	Gender and Development

GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEM	Gender and Empowerment Measure
GBV	Gender-based violence
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
ICRW	International Centre for Research on Women.
MOESAC	Ministry of Education, Sports, Arts and Culture
MSG	Mother Support group
MOWAGCD	Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
RBF	Rights-Based Framework
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SADEV	Swedish Agency for Development Evaluation
SARDC	Southern African Research Documentation Centre
SDGEA	Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa.
UN	United Nations

UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNESCO-IIEP	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation International Institute for Educational Planning
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organisation
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WAD	Women and Development
WID	Women in Development

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Breines, Connell and Eade (2000:35), inequality is a form of structural violence and it obstructs development. Breines et al (2000:35) argue that gender equality should be measured primarily by the factor of economic parity. Recent statistics show that despite the rising participation of women in education and in the labour force, imbalanced economic power between men and women still exists. A major transformation between men and women at economic level would contribute to the construction of a culture of peace and development.

Zimbabwe, like many countries in the developing world, has not been spared from gender inequalities and power imbalances in education, decision making and economic interdependence between men and women. According to the Human Development Report (2005:39), Millennium Development Goal 3 (MDG 3) in particular focuses on promoting gender equality and empowerment of women. MDG 3's main target is the elimination of gender disparity in primary, secondary and tertiary education. Its indicators include women's share in paid employment and women's representation in national parliaments. For the purposes of this study, the researcher will focus on investigating factors affecting rural girls' primary and secondary schooling, specifically homing in on the decrease in girls' numbers in secondary schools. The research will also look into how primary and secondary education affects gender equality and empowerment of women in rural areas. Of

importance is also a focus on possible interventions by the community, government and civil society in ensuring education for girls in rural areas is prioritised, with a view to attaining parity in the access to, and retention and completion of education and achieving gender equality and empowerment of women in the long run.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

In 2000, a total of 189 world leaders met in New York at the World Millennium Summit. These world leaders agreed on eight goals, known as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), that nations needed to achieve by 2015, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2012:2). Eurostat (2010:3) describes the MDGs as eight goals to be achieved by 2015 that respond to the world's main development challenges. The MDGs are drawn from the actions and targets stated in the Millennium Declaration, which was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly after the summit. Eurostat (2010:3) explains that the MDGs synthesise, in a single package, many of the most important commitments made separately at international conferences and summits in the 1990s. The researcher views MDGs as the driving force for nations to fast-track their poverty alleviation implementation strategies in order to accord every human being the right to live free from extreme poverty. The MDGs touch on the critical areas of development: eradication of poverty; the need to achieve universal education; promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women; reduction of child mortality rates; improving maternal health; combating

HIV/AIDS and malaria; environmental sustainability; and expansion of a global partnership for development.

One key goal, MDG 3, agreed upon by all nations, relates to the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of women. MDG 3 has one target, which is the elimination of gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005, and at all levels of education by 2015. MDG 3 has three indicators: 1) ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education; 2) the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector; and 3) the proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments. Given these indicators for measuring progress, it is safe to argue that gender parity in education will ensure a balance between women and men in paid employment. Gender parity will also positively affect the positions of leadership women assume in parliament and even in their local communities.

The background of Zimbabwe's position on MDG 3 is critical to understand in this research. To ascertain that MDG 3 is critical to meeting all the other MDGs, the Government of Zimbabwe, according to the Zimbabwe 2010 Progress Report (2010:16), has prioritised MDGs 1, 3 and 6 and these are highlighted vividly in National frameworks. The Zimbabwe 2012 Millennium Development Goals Progress Report (2012:9) highlights that Zimbabwe has achieved gender parity at primary and secondary school levels, but the proportion of women in decision making positions is still very low. According to the Zimbabwe 2012 Millennium Development Goals Progress Report (2012:32), the Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) for girls in primary and secondary levels is actually higher than that of boys i.e. 97.9 percent and 97.5 percent respectively. The Zimbabwe 2010 Millennium Development Goals Status

Report (2010:7) reiterates that girls comprise of 35 percent of the pupils in upper secondary school and secondary completion rate is higher for boys than girls. Given these statistics, this writer's major interest is to determine the extent to which these sentiments relate to girls' education in rural areas as well.

Makoni (2011:13) gives an overview on the gender machinery articulating that Zimbabwe created the Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development after independence to manage the participation of women in development. According to Makoni (2011:4), Zimbabwe is a signatory to a significant number of international treaties. However, the constitution of Zimbabwe articulates that an international treaty signed or ratified to by Zimbabwe will not become part of domestic law unless domesticated through an act of Parliament. This complicates the implementation of international instruments signed.

MDG 3 is a vital goal since attainment of the other goals is dependent on it. Graça Machel (Camfed 2010:1) echoes that the struggle for education must be won. And when the struggle for education is won, other struggles against poverty, war, ignorance and disease will be easier to accomplish. This demonstrates the centrality of MDG 3 in the battle to achieve the remaining seven MDGs. The United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO 2008:2) notes strongly that in most developing countries, gender inequality is a major obstacle to meeting the MDG targets, which is a particular challenge for women, since they constitute three fifths of the world's poor. Therefore, achieving the other goals will not be feasible without closing the gaps between men and women in terms of their vulnerability, capacities, access to resources and opportunities in life.

According to the Africa Partnership Forum (APF) Support Unit Report (2007:8), UN Secretary-General Ban Ki Moon stated that ‘the Millennium Development Goals are still achievable only if we act now’. It is against this backdrop that this research seeks to assess what progress has been made by civil society and government players to ensure that rural women and girls are part of the empowered population by 2015.

Education is a means to economic, social, spiritual and political freedom. The researcher agrees strongly with former UN Secretary General Kofi Annan’s sentiment that:

Education is a human right with immense power to transform and on the foundation of education rest the cornerstone of freedom, democracy and sustainable development and building good governance (UNICEF 1999:5).

Given Africa’s economic growth challenges, and particularly Zimbabwe’s economic meltdown in the decade from the year 2000 to 2010, education remains a critical intervention.

Given the link between education, economic empowerment of women and gender equality, the study deduces how primary and secondary education and equality and empowerment affect each other, even when the girls become adults. The research therefore includes the views of women and men who completed primary school, but did not go on to high school; and women and men who started secondary school and did not finish it. A cohort of men and women who finished secondary education was

also important in this research in order to understand their views on education vis-à-vis economic empowerment of women and gender equality.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO 2007:2) states that the world's 774 million adults lack basic literacy skills and 64 per cent of these are women. This share, according to UNESCO (2007:2), has not changed since the early 1990s. According to the Zimbabwean Ministry of Education, Art, Sports and Culture (MOESAC) (2005:3), enrolments and completion rates, especially in secondary education, have remained skewed in favour of boys. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) (1999:4) notes that although in most districts girls' completion rates in primary schools have been higher, the challenges girls face in order to transit to secondary schools, and to remain in school once enrolled, are tremendous. UNICEF (1999:4) acknowledges that the situation is even worse in rural areas. Owing to inequalities in education at a tender age, women in rural areas suffer economic marginalisation and economic disempowerment, even in adulthood. The Department for International Development (UK) (DFID 2009:28) recognises that poverty will not end until women and men have equal rights. These include rights to have an accessible education, a life free from enrolment and completion of education barriers, the right to economic empowerment and gender equality.

Even though this picture is gloomy, gender inequality and disempowerment of girls and women in rural areas of Zimbabwe have not received adequate scholarly

attention in the publications and research. It is still not clear what constitutes women and girls' needs in the implementation of gender equality strategies. The roles of each of the stakeholders working to alleviate inequalities and disempowerment are not clearly defined. The voices of men and women in rural areas like ward 33 articulating the challenges they have faced and the strides made towards the achievement of MDG 3 has been a missing link in Zimbabwe's literature on progress made on MDGs. Specific activities and actions being taken by civil society and government ministries in ward 33 to ensure gender equality and women empowerment remained unclear.

Research was hence needed to be able to determine the factors affecting economic empowerment, equality and education in rural areas. Having consulted men and women in Ward 33 community, rural voices have been taken into account in explaining the extent to which government and civil society are implementing interventions targeted at addressing the disempowerment and inequalities affecting women and girls in rural areas. This study is premised on the reality that girls and women in rural areas face unique challenges in their pursuit of education and economic empowerment. It therefore seeks to bring out the specific barriers affecting rural girls in their quest for education, equality and empowerment. The study also investigates government and civil society's initiatives in Ward 33 to ensure equality and empowerment of women are realised.

1.4. GENERAL OBJECTIVE

- To investigate the extent to which gender equality and empowerment in education have been achieved in Ward 33 of Mt Darwin

1.4.1 Specific objectives

- To ascertain the factors affecting girls' primary and secondary education access, retention and completion rates in Ward 33 of Mt Darwin in Zimbabwe
- To establish the extent to which girls' access to, and completion of primary and secondary education has influenced their economic empowerment and gender equality
- To determine the role that Camfed and the Government of Zimbabwe are playing in ensuring the overall development of the girl child in rural communities in Ward 33

1.5 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

Several factors motivated the writer to study this topic. The personal narrative as outlined explains the writer's drive to undertake this study.

Personal narrative

Having been born and raised on a commercial farm in Zimbabwe in the 1980s, a decent education was a far-off reality. My three sisters and I would help our mother tend to the commercial farm so she could earn her wages, pay our fees, and buy us great floral dresses for our upkeep. I cannot

remember her buying us shoes, despite the long 11 kilometre distance we travelled by foot to school every day, even when I was only six years old. I understand this was beyond my parents' reach. Now as an adult, in as much as I would not want the same to happen to any child in the world, this experience gave me a good appreciation of what need looks like and what it means to be making a difference.

My sisters dropped out of school soon after finishing Grade 7. Transitioning to Form 1 was a mere dream for me, despite my strong drive of wanting to become a pilot. It dawned on me soon after Grade 7 results at my rural school were published that I was the best student with five units. A well-wisher volunteered to pay my fees and I went to the nearest secondary school, which was about 17 kilometres away from my rural home. After two weeks, the well-wisher recommended that I move to the nearest boarding school so that distances could be a thing of the past.

I sadly did not know that my enrolling in Form 1 was not a guarantee that I would finish Form 4. The well-wisher never paid my fees until in Form 2. The only option that was left was for me to drop out of school. For a full year at a boarding school, determination and perseverance became my fees and my levies.

My opportunity to continue in school resurfaced when Camfed, a non-governmental organisation, identified me for support when I was on the verge of dropping out of school, and started to pay my fees.

So many members of my family and community look up to me for support and inspiration. I remember very well the words my mother used to always say to me 'Ndiwe uchatozotichengeta, Winnie, dzidzanesimba mwanangu' (We look up to you to take care of us in the future, Winnie, do your very best in school.)

I finished Form 6, enrolled at the University of Zimbabwe, and completed a degree in psychology. I went on to do Honours in Development Studies. I am

now working and I specialise in putting smiles on families' faces by ensuring that children like me benefit from their right to education.

My parents were my reason to press on. I had an obligation to take care of them, which I needed to fulfil. My sisters remained my anchor in times of want as they would go and do piece jobs in other people's fields and ensure I had all I needed in boarding school. Camfed was the biggest surprise life ever gave me.

Bumpy as it may be, the road to success for a rural girl is a worthy journey. After all the hustle, ridicule from fellow students and hard work, I still stand and say all a rural girl needs is an education. When she is educated, everything changes for the best.

Camfed Impact Report (2010:30) notes that by living in an environment of extreme poverty, rural women and girls in sub-Saharan Africa remain critically excluded from education and economic opportunities. Furthermore, because rural areas are isolated traditional environments, uneducated women gain little knowledge to effect change in their lives. Hence, poverty, and its associated problems, from gender inequality to HIV and AIDS, endures from one generation to the next. Having worked for Camfed for the past 10 years, the researcher has been inspired by the great positive change rural girls can realise in their own lives and those of their families and the community at large. She has appreciated the vast potential of economic empowerment and gender equality that can be unleashed when rural girls have an opportunity to complete secondary education.

What the writer saw from childhood inspired her want to dig deeper and find out the role community stakeholders can play in the fight to attain gender equality and empowerment of women through girls being able to access school, remain in it, and complete primary and secondary education. Lewis (2012:2) explains that the cycle of poverty is a social phenomenon whereby poverty-stricken individuals exhibit a tendency to remain poor throughout their lifespan and in many cases across generations. This is because the poor cannot afford education, and the illiterate cannot hope to earn enough to overcome poverty and be able to send their children to school. This research subscribes to the notion that education can break the cycle of poverty in families and communities. What is not clear is the impact of interventions in rural areas to ensure the education system is made accessible and the availability of conditions that allow retention and completion, especially for girls. Above all, the trends that are skewed in favour of boys in the district, as far as secondary school access, enrolment and completion rates are concerned, have incited the researcher to find out more about what can be done for girls so that they enjoy the benefits of education in the same manner as boys.

1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This research focuses on MDG 3, and specifically Target 1, which looks at gender parity in primary schools by 2005 and in secondary and other levels of education by 2015. Owing to the size and scope of this research topic, this study concentrates on girls' access, retention and completion opportunities in primary and secondary

schools. Further to this enquiry, the researcher attempts to link the impact of education on economic empowerment of women and gender equality. The education cycle in Zimbabwe starts at primary level, Grades 1 to 7; goes on to lower secondary level, Forms 1 to 4 (O Level), and upper secondary, Forms 5 to 6 (Advanced Level); and ends at post-secondary level, including universities and polytechnic colleges. The researcher chose to dwell on the primary and lower secondary levels. In Ward 33, no institution yet provides upper secondary. The few people who go to Advanced Level (Form 5 to Form 6) do so outside the ward and normally stay with relatives.

This study does not address post-secondary education. However, this is not to downplay the importance of opportunities for tertiary education. Educational Pathways International (2010:1) states that university is a critical component of human development worldwide. It provides not only the high-level skills necessary for every labour market, but also the training essential for professionals who drive economies and governments, and make critical decisions for societies and communities. This same report describes how 24 developing countries experienced higher economic growth, reduced incidence of poverty, a rise in the average wage, an increased share of trade in gross domestic product (GDP), and improved health outcomes by simultaneously raising their rates of participation in higher education

Completing primary education sets a firm developmental foundation for individuals, and completing O-Level exams with good passes (five subjects) that include mathematics and English affords a student the opportunity to join tertiary colleges and polytechnic colleges. UNICEF (2011a:6) correctly notes that by not finishing primary education, children lack the literacy, numeracy and life skills that are the

foundations for lifelong learning. For the purposes and size of this research, the study concentrated on primary and the lower level of secondary education.

Empowerment socially, economically and politically is not possible without educating women, who constitute 52 per cent of the Zimbabwean population, as reported by Towindo (2012:4). The 2012 census recorded 100 women for every 93 men in Zimbabwe. As such, empowering women means empowering the majority of Zimbabweans. Empowerment of girls through the school system translates to their participation and involvement in all other facets of life, and secondary education is vital to basic empowerment and gender equality attainment.

Camfed was chosen because the organisation's interventions are skewed towards women's empowerment and gender equality. Also, girls' education has been Camfed's area of speciality since its inception in 1992. Camfed's interventions are programmes and not projects, meaning the organisation works with communities for the long term, and sustainability is evident in the organisation's work. Given the nature of its programmes, Camfed has fostered stronger relationships with community members. Hence, the researcher is confident that Camfed adequately represents the civil society organisations that deal with issues of retention, access and completion rates of girls' secondary education, gender equality and women empowerment.

1.7 LITERATURE REVIEW

Gender equality and economic empowerment are related concepts that should be analysed with care if one is to do research that seeks to check progress and efforts being made to ensure female citizens of a country are on the national educational agenda. Parity in education, which is articulated as the key target of MDG 3, is not the only variable affecting women empowerment and gender equality. This study will analyse control over income (economic power), resources and the overall household responsibility women have and how their education could have a bearing on their current status. UNDP (2008a:330), using the gender and empowerment measure (GEM), examined whether women and men are able to actively participate in economic and political life and take part in decision making. The results of this study are clear: in most countries, industrial or developing, women are not yet allowed into the corridors of economic and political power. However, the GEM study results are silent on what men and women think about this status quo.

Zimbabwe's economic crisis from 2000 to 2010 had some impact on education as a system. The current literature does not show clearly to what extent the government and civil society have implemented MDG 3 in respect of the challenges Zimbabwe faced during the economic crisis. With only one year left before 2015, which is the timeframe in which all the MDGs should be achieved, it is important for this study to seek to understand what other researchers have discovered in relation to empowerment and gender equality in rural areas.

The researcher acknowledges the existence of a body of knowledge in the form of published books, published articles and journals, United Nations (UN) papers and researches that were done in the area of gender equality and women empowerment. This literature review connects discussions on women empowerment and gender equality to the issue of girls' access to education in rural areas, identifying gaps from the literature and addressing those gaps in this survey.

According to De Beer and Swanepoel (2002:134), people's participation in development implies empowerment, and empowerment implies people's ability to participate in development. Rowlands (cited in De Beer 1995:102) argues that genuine participation means that people must have power to influence the decisions that affect their lives. Without empowerment, participation becomes ineffective. Monaheng (1998:38) ascertains that human-centred development requires that people whose lives are affected must have the power to influence the process of development and participate fully in determining their own needs. That said, the question arises as to how women can participate when the social and economic relationships in their homes and communities are unequal. This question thus necessitates this research, to look at education in rural areas and how it affects women's economic empowerment and gender equality. The Government of Zimbabwe has signed several protocols and declarations in which gender equality and empowerment of women have been emphasised. Among these declarations are Education for All (EFA), Convention to Eliminate all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA), and MDGs, from which this

paper draws inspiration. The literature review in chapter 2 analyses some of these declarations and interrogates how they have affected women in rural areas.

Civil society organisations have been known for their complementary efforts in assisting government. The literature review also looks closely at how Camfed, as a non-governmental organisation, has been instrumental in fighting gender inequalities and promoting women's empowerment in rural areas. The programmes run by the organisation have also been critically articulated in this study.

The literature review provides more detailed definitions and explanations of the key terms for this study. Among other terms, empowerment, gender equality, parity in education and development are explained. Chapter 2 also covers the theoretical framework underpinning this study, that is, the rights-based framework (RBF).

1.8 MOUNT DARWIN AND WARD 33 SCOPE

The study with the objectives outlined above was conducted in the northern part of Mt Darwin district. According to ZimStat (2012:26), Mt Darwin district has a total population of 212 190 people. Of this population, 109 120, that is 51.4 per cent are female, while the remaining 103 070 (48.6 per cent) are male. The district has 40 wards and the particular area in the district in which this study was conducted is Ward 33.

The major economic activity in this ward is farming, and most are peasant farmers. A few farmers grow cotton commercially. Owing to the ward's proximity to the

Mozambican border, some forms of informal and formal trading take place within this society. For example, a wild fruit called *masau* is used for trade with other regions. It makes a strong beer called *kachasu*.

There are two vocational training establishments in the district, namely Chaminuka and Border Gezi training centres. Border Gezi is a youth training centre, while Chaminuka accepts enrolment for all ages. Courses at these training centres include motor mechanics, building, agriculture (farming), carpentry, metalwork, horticulture and food and nutrition.

The researcher works for Camfed, an organisation whose niche is empowering communities to realise the potential in their girl children to transform communities when the girls become educated. The organisation works with mother support groups, young women school-leavers, school committees, traditional leaders, school administrators, schoolchildren and communities at large in the bid to advance girls' education for gender equality and empowerment of women.

The vision of the Ministry of Education Sport Arts and Culture (MOESAC) is of united and well-educated Zimbabweans with Unhu/Ubuntu, who are patriotic, balanced, competitive and self-reliant. The vision of the Ministry of Women Affairs Gender and Community Development (MOWAGCD) is of prosperous and empowered women and communities that enjoy gender equality and equity. MOWAGCD's mandate is to spearhead women's empowerment, gender equality and equity for community development.

1.9. IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

Women's realities in rural communities create a strong basis for this research. Kehler (2006:112) argues that socio-economic development and level of service are closely interlinked with gender. Women constitute the majority of the poor and live mostly in rural and informal settlements, which have little or no provision of services, including education. This study therefore puts on the agenda what the Zimbabwe Government is doing to ensure empowerment and equality through educating girls and rural women.

The recommendations of this study will be tools for government ministries, civil society and community stakeholders to refocus educational interventions to include specific interventions for rural areas centred on access to, retention in and completion of secondary education, which leads to empowerment and equality.

Women make up about half the adult population and often contribute more than their fair share to the society, yet their personalities, interests and activities have not received attention commensurate with their energy in history (Arkpabio 2007:1). The MDG Achievement Fund (2012:1) states that 65 per cent of the world's poorest are women and girls. This alone provides enough evidence to certify why the researcher has interest in looking at the extent to which MDG 3, Target 1, has been achieved. Getting the information on what is happening in Ward 33 will provide important facts for stakeholders who are responsible for making a difference in rural communities.

1.10 CHAPTER OUTLINE

Chapter 1 introduces the research by providing the background to the research topic. The statement of the problem is also outlined, thereby leading to the objectives of this particular research. In a nutshell, chapter 1 contains an outline of the rest of the dissertation.

Chapter 2 gives a clear indication of the literature that has been covered. It has put the study in a scope in which it can be understood as far as primary and secondary education, economic empowerment of women and gender equality are concerned. This chapter indicates how other researchers link empowerment and equality with education. In this chapter the study unveils definitions of major terms and operationalizes these terms. It allows the writer to give her opinions and judgement over findings in books and sources that were used in the literature review. The theoretical and conceptual frameworks underpinning this study that show the inter-relatedness of education, empowerment and gender equality is given in Chapter 2.

Chapter 3 describes the research setting. It gives information on Mt Darwin and ward 33, which is where the fieldwork have been documented. Research instruments are discussed in detail in chapter 3. This chapter gives the researcher an opportunity to explain sample designs, techniques, sample size and to acknowledge any shortcomings in the research design and methodology. This is also where the data-gathering process is explained and justified.

Chapter 4 builds on chapter 3 by explaining, presenting and discussing the research results. The main findings are interpreted and summarised. Chapter 4 explores

various factors that influence secondary education, women empowerment and equality in Ward 33, as have been informed by the survey. Of importance in this chapter are the voices of the community, and of Camfed and government ministries on what is being done at various levels of community hierarchy to ensure that empowerment and equality remain at the heart of community planning and development.

Chapter 5 discusses the main recommendations in line with the main objectives of the study, in relation to the conceptual framework chosen, the literature reviewed and the data collected. This is done with the aim of showing connections and relationships among the concepts that are under study. The study findings in relation to the objectives this study was set to investigate are determined. Chapter 5 also shows the implications of the results and suggests recommendations for the way forward.

Chapter 6 being the final Chapter gives a summary of the whole study. This include a summary of the problem statement and the methodologies used, further recommendations, insights, knowledge and inspiration drawn from the study and specific actions and next steps now that the study is done

1.11 CONCLUSION

Chapter 1 discusses issues relating to the background of the study, the research question, objectives, what motivated the writer to want to carry out this survey. It

provides the importance of this research. It introduces overall outline of this study. Chapter 1 gives way to Chapter 2 that details the literature reviewed.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This literature review looks critically into the schools of thought and information by various authors who have written on gender equality and women's empowerment and education. Literature from published authors, UN publications, newspaper articles and journals has been used. This chapter allowed the researcher to learn what has been done by other scholars, and relate that information to the current study. This analysis verifies, confirms and, in other instances, gives a different perspective to the data that were collected in the study. Chapter 2 attempts to give conceptual and operational definitions of the key terms in this study. The historical background of education in Zimbabwe and the links between education and empowerment and education and gender have been unravelled. This chapter reinforces Hofstee's (2006:91) position that a good literature review is comprehensive, critical and contextualises one's own research from a wide range of other researches that had been done before.

2.2 DEFINITION OF TERMS

This section looks at the conceptual and operational definitions of terms used in the study. Calmorin and Calmorin (2008:235) refer to conceptual definitions as the meanings of terms that are usually taken from the dictionary, encyclopaedia and

published books. Calmorin and Calmorin (2008:235) describe the operational definition of terms as being based on the observed characteristics and how they are used in the study. Therefore key terms have been explained using conceptual definitions that have been operationalized in order to give lucid meaning to this particular research.

2.2.1 Definition of empowerment

Empowerment, and in particular women's empowerment is a critical concept in this study, as stated in MDG 3: to promote gender equality and empowerment of women. Griffin (2003:11) defines empowerment as a process of awareness and capacity building leading to greater participation, to greater decision-making power and control and to transformative action. McFadden (1999:85) looks at empowerment as the end result of challenging existing power structures and relations. Upadhye and Madan (2012:1), like MacFadden (1999) state that women empowerment can be viewed as a process in which women challenge existing norms and culture to effectively improve their status in the family, as well as in society. Kabeer (2001:19) explains strategic choices that one acquires through empowerment. These include choice of a livelihood, where to live, whether to marry, whom to marry, whether to have children and how many, and freedom of movement. Kabeer (2001) limits empowerment to choices one would have unlike Narayan (2005:5) who adds the notion of control of one's resources after the choices have been made. The preceding definitions, however, do not explain the process of achieving empowerment or factors that affect

empowerment, let alone in rural communities. But the definitions do provide a scope through which this study looks at the extent to which activities to fulfil MDG 3 are undertaken. The researcher concurs with Lincoln, Travers, Ackers and Wilkinson (2002:274), who argue that men have gained a lot of power not only through their individual qualities (for example physical strength) but through the long-established patriarchal societies in which people live. The researcher posits that empowerment is strongly linked to education because it unravels societal and patriarchal norms, thereby making women understand their authority and real value as human beings who deserve to have their human rights observed. In terms of Griffin (2003) and McFadden's (1999) definitions, education is the bridge that leads to individuals' awareness and capacity building, which are among the indicators of empowerment.

Empowerment in this study is thus viewed through the lens of the importance of ensuring girls receive the education they require and deserve, which leads to their future economic wellbeing. The literature review also investigates the extent to which education influences equitability in the distribution of resources and wealth in the home and community, which are key components of the conceptualisation of economic empowerment in this particular research. The meaning that the whole discussion brings is that people are not empowered or disempowered in a vacuum, but in relation to other people or groups whose lives intersect with theirs. In this research, the lives of women and girls intersect with those of boys and men in their communities.

2.2.2 Definition of gender equality

Gender equality, given its close link with empowerment and being an integral part of MDG 3, is an important term to define in this study. Reeves and Baden (2008:2) define gender equality as access to resources and opportunities for boys and girls, men and women. Reeves and Baden (2008) leave 'resource access' hanging. They do not spell out the equitability need in the access to these resources. Gudhlanga, Chirimuuta and Bhukuvhani (2012:4537) fill the gap in Reeves and Baden's (2008) definition by explaining that gender equality is a social order in which men and women share the same opportunities and constraints. Gender equity, according to Gudhlanga et al (2012:4537), recognises the differences between men and women and accommodates these differences in order to stop the continuation of inequalities that prevail in communities. MDG 3 measures empowerment of women and gender equality by parity in education United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) (2012:221). This alone, according to the researcher, is an acknowledgement of the vital role education plays in gender equality.

According to the 2008 UNDP Gender Equality Strategy (2008:2), gender refers to the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female and the relationships between women and men, boys and girls. The UNDP Gender Equality Strategy (2008:2) explains that these attributes and relationships are socially constructed and are changeable, time specific and contextual. Gender determines what is expected, allowed and valued in a woman and man in a given context. Subramanian (2003) in this vein notes that masked as culture, these gender ideologies become stubbornly defended as traditional and immutable. Following the

latter definition, through the study the writer wishes to bring out what gender equality in the rural context actually entails and what civil society and government are doing about it.

2.2.3 Parity in education

Subrahmanian (2003:2) defines gender parity as achieving equal participation of girls and boys in all forms of education, based on their proportion in the various age groups in the population. The UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning Report (UNESCO-IIEP) (2011:6) reiterates that parity is not a game of numbers. The UNESCO-IIEP Report argues that while there has been undoubtedly progress towards gender parity in terms of number of boys and girls enrolling into schools in many countries, this has not translated to equality. The report (UNESCO-IIEP 2011:25) notes that gender differences in achievements have remained significant, even in countries where gender parity has improved. According to the researcher, this signifies underlying factors that need to be tackled beyond parity. Hence rural areas must be looked at to understand how girls and women are being affected by inequalities and gender disparities in education. This writer agrees with Takyi-Amoako (2008:196), who notes that access to, and duration and quality of education are all critical elements of an education system if the right skills are to be conferred. In the same vein, the harsh effects of poverty on women and girls should not be ignored. Policy change at the highest level – with little being done to challenge and manage household crises that at times emphasise women subordination due to its link with restricted domestic systems – may result in little or no change. However, in the context of rural areas, the cultural mindset shift and peculiar challenges

associated with gender roles and scarce amenities cannot be ignored. According to this research, parity in education entails the creation of an equal, enabling environment for boys and girls to access, progress through and completing secondary school. According to Unterhalter (2012:67), gender equality and parity in education have received prominence in international treaties and declarations, but little has changed in the national and local arena. This researcher looks not only at the national arena, but at remote and normally abandoned rural areas.

Yet the cycle of education from primary to secondary school should equip girls and boys to become economically independent and empowered in their adult life. This research therefore explores the accessibility of education to boys and girls, conscious of the context and practical circumstances in which children – especially girls – live in rural communities.

The writer posits that gender parity in education alone does not tell us the rate of access, retention and achievement for boys and girls. Parity does not give information about the equality component in relation to accessing education, progressing through school, and living in a gender-equitable society after school. Acknowledging the importance of a gender-equitable society, this research concentrates on what parity in education translates to when one is out of school, that is, in the area of economic empowerment.

2.3 THE LINK BETWEEN EDUCATION AND EMPOWERMENT

There is a direct and inseparable link between education and women's empowerment. This section demonstrates the link as explained by a number of

authors. It explains the connections between education and empowerment in relation to this particular study. To summarise the definitions (section 2.2 above), empowerment is a social order in which men and women's opportunities and constraints are not determined by whether one is born male or female. Empowerment is a process of awareness and capacity building to greater participation and greater decision making, the ability to challenge existing power structures and relations that are not in tandem with one's ability to take control of one's life and destiny. Empowerment is explained as the redistribution of authority and power across gender, races and individuals (Rowlands 1995).

Education demystifies the longstanding disempowerment of women. According to Nai (2003:47), education provides the necessary literacy and financial skills in the modern world. Hoyda and Ankerbo (2003:5) mention five benefits of education: education makes interaction easier; it significantly improves one's self confidence; it makes oppressed groups come together and demand redress; it opens up job opportunities; and it increases a country's skilled human capital. Raynor (2006:117) relates how women in rural Bangladesh are viewed as burdens because of the large dowry families have to pay off when marrying a girl; the perceived wasted investment on families when they educate a girl who will be lost after marriage; and the risk a family reputation runs when a girl breaks the moral codes of purity. The researcher identifies with Raynor (2006:117), who recognises how through education, these women's burdens are turned into capabilities. The researcher, however, views education as the necessary link that changes in technology, competition and expertise require for one to survive sustainably in the current world.

Nai (2003:48) explains how the World Bank views women education as a critical contribution towards human capital. The human capital approach values the effect of education on economic production, microcredit, sustainability and income generation. Such critical impact brought about by education should not be undermined, as it leads to direct economic empowerment for women when they lift themselves out of abject poverty.

Education empowers women to promote and access better healthcare and benefits for women and their children. Nussbaum (2003:344) indicates that education is very much linked to marriage options, the chances of being subjected to violence, dowry demands, and financial empowerment, if not financial independence. This notion acknowledges the empowering change of one's life experiences and destiny that is brought about by education. Nai (2003:49) acknowledges that education strives to change norms and conditions that are detrimental to the interests and welfare of women. Tasli (2007:29) explores the empowerment approach and how challenges existing structures in societies that celebrate women's oppression and subordination. Women's gender disempowerment, according to Batliwala (1994:130), is rooted in the minds of both women and men, and strengthened and protected through social cultural norms. Education hence presents women and girls with the ability to question and develop a strong will to change the aversive status quo. This breaks the traditional and cultural roles and responsibilities of women. Thus through education, the social and cultural norms that dictate women's place as being in the kitchen are challenged. Women through education are seen outdoors, exploring their potential,

and ensuring a sustainable income, which in most cases enables them to make decisions over themselves and their surroundings.

Education is not the only factor affecting empowerment, but it is a critical element in enlarging the gap between the rich and the poor, the powerful and the powerless, the elite and the common. MDG 3, by having parity in education as its key indicator, spells out how education is a key determinant in gender equality and empowerment of women.

2.4 THE LINK BETWEEN EDUCATION AND GENDER EQUALITY

Education is closely linked to gender equality. In the years between 1980 and 2010, member states around the world, including Zimbabwe, signed a number of protocols and passed several laws to remove gender inequalities between men and women. This section brings out the important link between education and gender equality, and looks at empowerment and gender equality as two related terms that have cause and effect. This section elucidates how education is such an important tool to equality. Education, being a key tool to empowerment, opens up avenues for women to challenge inequalities between men and women and demand equality (Batliwala 1994:136). A World Bank Report (2005:64) explains that gender equality means equal access to opportunities that allow people to pursue a life of their own choosing and to avoid extreme voice inequality in decision making. The Global Monitoring Report (2008:106) brings out the three major elements in equality: equality in resources, equality in rights, and equality in voice. According to the researcher, gender inequalities in the home that limit women's opportunities to unleash their

potential are significantly dealt with when a woman is educated. Through education, a woman's voice is amplified as further opportunities to express self-open up, even outside the household.

On one side, economic power gives way to better education opportunities (Freire 2000). On the other hand, an opportunity for a better education paves the way for economic opportunities, as is noted by Stromquist (2009:67). Carr-Hill, Okech, Katahoire, Kakooza, Ndidole and Oxenham (2001:6) acknowledge that transformation in societal beliefs and practices in the direction of equality can be complex to explain, but formal education emerges as an important means to achieve societal equilibrium. According to Stromquist (2008:26), formal education serves a larger sector of the community at one goal. Nath (2001:59) shows that discrimination exists, but with improved progress of the family, the girl is given priority too. Both Stromquist (2008) and Nath (2001) acknowledge the contribution education plays in gender equality realisation. Stromquist (2008), however, does not necessarily pay attention to possible factors such as poverty and economic wellbeing in the family that may impact on education and perpetrate gender inequalities within a family. Nath (2001) and Stromquist (2008) agree that education affects gender equality in as much as it determines the economic status of a family and individual communities.

Early marriage is associated with domestic violence and increased vulnerability to HIV and AIDS (LeFevre, Quiroga and Murphy 2007:139). This reduces girls' economic advancement opportunities and accelerates gender inequalities between boys and girls, men and women. Families, especially the poor in rural areas, allocate their last resources to education, prioritising it over competing needs such as food

and health. The preceding argument entails that inequality minimises one's chances of being educated, thereby limiting the capabilities one can demonstrate and demand. It hence follows that education and equality are related concepts that affect each other directly in most cases. Lack of education leads girls to marry early, become pregnant early and start child rearing. According to UNICEF (2001:7), on average, women with seven more years of schooling marry four years later and have 2.2 fewer children than those with no education. Child rearing at a younger age is not compatible with schooling, which generally results in the young person being socially excluded in society. The International Centre for Research on Women (2006:1) adds that child marriage, which is associated with lower levels of schooling, not only affects the individual girl, but is a barrier to international development goals. ICRW (2006:2) like (UNICEF 2004:4) comments that a lost opportunity for a girl has wide-reaching repercussions for her children and total wellbeing. Duflo (2012:1054) confirms the notion posed by UNICEF in regard to poverty and the sacrifices families make for girls' education, especially when a family is in crisis. Duflo (2012:1054) reiterates that the differential treatment of boys and girls that goes in favour of boys become acute when the family have challenges and are forced to choose between the girl and the boy. It inculcates the idea that all children have the same equal rights and deserve equal treatment regardless of whether they were born male or female.

Education has a major impact on the acceptance of gender equality as a fundamental social value. Education is central to enhancing gender equality. It is a way of making known social cultural norms that for centuries have accepted gender inequalities as normal and a way of life. The Swedish Agency for Development

Evaluation (SADEV) Report (SADEV 2010:3) notes that education plays a crucial role in socialisation and the transmission of social norms and values.

In conclusion, education is a crucial means of enhancing gender equality and empowerment, which improves one's quality of life. Education, which leads to equality, is essential for the ability to exercise one's rights to empowerment (Sleeter 1991:144). Education can be vital in changing attitudes into accepting equality and embracing empowerment, which is fundamental. Without education and equality, girls and women's progress and advancement are less likely to be attained.

2.5 AN ANALYSIS OF THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

According to Miles and Huberman (1994:18), a conceptual framework describes beliefs one holds about the phenomena being studied. This can be called idea context of the study. Miles and Huberman (1994:18) explain that a conceptual framework can either be presented graphically or in narrative form. It explains things to be studied and the presumed relationships among them. This writer premised this study on the rights based framework. The section below explains how education, empowerment and equality are viewed as a rights issue and hence non-negotiable if development is to take place in rural areas.

2.5.1 Rights-based framework

When one looks at the consequences of not being educated, and its adverse impact on gender equality and economic empowerment, education qualifies as a right and not a privilege. As expressed at the Dakar Declaration (2000), Unterhalter (2012:73)

argues that achieving equity in education entails putting in place a rights-based empowerment framework that targets the most vulnerable and transforms power hierarchies in learning spaces, communities and policy structures in order to give the poor and vulnerable girls a voice and ensure that their right to quality education is sustained. Martin and Boesen (2007:11) reveal that poverty is not merely about lack of resources. Even when the resources are there, the poor may not access them simply because of who they are, and where they live, and because of neglect or lack of concern from the rights holders and the duty bearers. Martin et al (2007:4) argue that rights-based development starts from the ethical position that all people are entitled to a certain standard in terms of material and spiritual wellbeing. Gender equality and economic empowerment as a right is then not questionable if they contribute to making a human being whole and better. The Dakar Declaration, Education for All (EFA) and ultimately MDG 2 confirm this notion of making girls' education a basic right.

In the context of this research, girls and women are entitled to economic empowerment, gender equality and emancipation through education. Women also have the right to enjoy equality, just as their male counterparts do, be it in the school system or in the home. Section 2.11 explains international treaties that the Zimbabwean government signed on empowerment of women and gender equality. These treaties stress the principles of ethics and of social justice. Governments therefore have obligations to put in place equitable laws and systems that enable individuals to enjoy their rights and to seek judicial recourse under the rule of law

when they have been violated (UNDP 2010:17). The rights-based approach to women empowerment therefore looks at all women as rights holders.

According to Subramanian (2003:3), countries that have committed to these international instruments have clear obligations to progressively realise the right to education and gender equality in and through education. Rights here are framed in terms of states' obligations toward their citizens, for which they can be held accountable. However, this right to education cannot be analysed in isolation from the circumstances children and girls face in the communities, given the gender roles and imbalances between men and women. The women's empowerment framework, as highlighted by Longwe (1995), emphasises the rights-based approach when it states that women and men have equal control over factors of production without dominance or subordination. Mukhopadhyay, Smyth and March (1999:93) explain how the women's empowerment framework looks at practical issues affecting women and girls, and how these can be addressed with the view to women and girls enjoying their full potential. This research acknowledges that laws may be there that state the rights of women and men, but without education that liberates women and men from the bondage of poverty and ensure positive conscientisation, those rights remain a dream. The rights-based approach has hence been chosen to give direction to this research, as it does not leave room to negotiate women empowerment and realisation for gender equality, but looks at this as the ultimate way to handle inequalities if girls and women are to be integrated in development.

The rights-based approach to women empowerment and gender equality is critical as it reinforces the need for policy makers and programme implementers to view

education, empowerment and equality as prerequisites to human development. The human rights framework gives no option to decision makers but to ensure that every human being, regardless of gender or location, enjoys equality (UNESCO 2007:7). The human rights framework, however, ignores important aspects of societal norms and engraved values such as patriarchy, which regard men as superior to women. In this vein, this study reveal how such norms affect equality and how government and civil society in Ward 33 are dealing with these to ensure that empowerment, equality through education become a reality for all. UNESCO (2007:13) acknowledges that education has been formally recognised as a human right since the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human rights in 1948. Having MDG 3 for the researcher is a targeted reminder for member states to ensure education can offer all citizens, even in the most marginalised of places, an opportunity to prioritise women empowerment and gender equality with education at the centre. In conclusion, the rights-based framework, as is brought out by Martin et al (2007:12), seeks to hold governments and other duty bearers accountable and enables the rights owners to claim those rights that will be due to them

2.6 TRENDS IN EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE

Primary completion rates (Table 2.1 below) show significant improvement in primary schools, where there is now near parity in the country (MOESAC 2005:4). Table 2.2 for secondary schools shows a huge margin between boys and girls as far as completion is concerned. It reveals that boys have better chances of completing secondary school than their girl counterparts. By province, Mashonaland Central,

where Ward 33 is located, is the second worst province, in which girls have the lowest completion rates. This statistic is captured in Table 2.3 below.

Table 2.1: Primary completion rates trend by gender, Zimbabwe 2000–2004

Years	Female	Male	Total	Parity index
1995–2001	72.16	74.17	73.18	0.97
1996–2002	68.86	70.11	69.49	0.98
1997–2003	66.99	67.69	67.34	0.99
1998–2004	67.99	67.26	67.62	1.01

Source: Zimbabwe National Strategic Plan for the Education of Girls, Orphans and other Vulnerable Children, 2005–2010

Table 2.2: Secondary school completion rates Form 1–4 by gender and parity index Zimbabwe 2000-2004. (All figures below are given as percentages)

Years	Female	Male	Total	Parity index
1997–2000	73.69	82.09	78.07	0.90
1998–2001	74.42	82.16	78.44	0.91
1999–2002	70.96	83.43	77.27	0.85
2000–2003	67.47	71.96	69.80	0.94
2001–2004	70.66	75.27	73.05	

Source: Zimbabwe National Strategic Plan for the Education of Girls, Orphans and other Vulnerable Children, 2005–2010

Table 2.3: Secondary school completion rates by gender and province, Zimbabwe 2004

Province	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Harare	90.67	94.89	92.73	12.15	19.40	15.67
Manicaland	71.89	76.49	74.36	8.41	12.34	10.46
Mashonaland Central	55.03	64.07	60.04	7.16	10.21	8.75
Mashonaland East	68.94	75.50	72.46	8.56	9.99	9.30
Mashonaland West	68.36	73.93	71.39	4.72	9.94	7.44

Source: Zimbabwe National Strategic Plan for the Education of Girls, Orphans and other Vulnerable Children, 2005–2010

Figure 2.1 is an analysis from the Camfed (2012:7) female dropout survey report that was carried out over a cross-section of rural districts in Zimbabwe. The analysis brought out the major causes of girls' drop-out. In percentage, the drop-out causes are ranked from the most common to the least. Financial challenges are the most common cause of dropping out of school that was mentioned, followed by family problems and then marriage. Problems with other students at school, distances to school and caring for sick family members, though referred to, were the least mentioned causes for girls' dropping out of school.

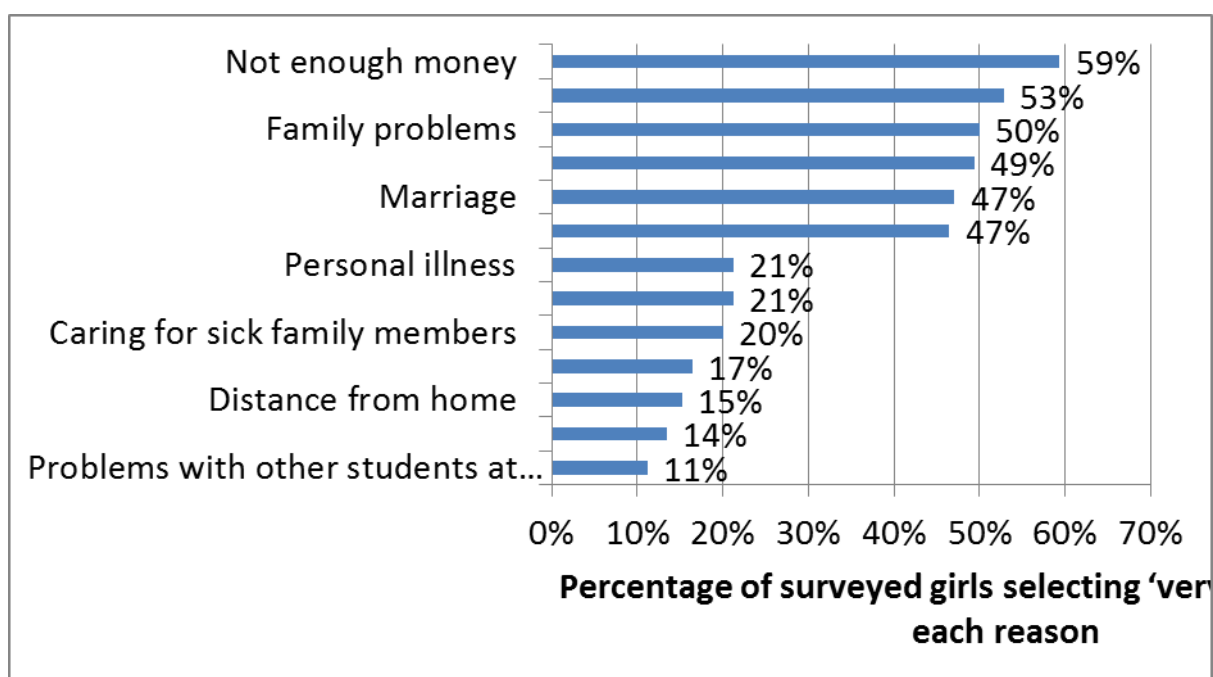


Figure 2.4: Analysis of female dropouts in rural Zimbabwe (Camfed, 2012:7)

2.7 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN ZIMBABWE

Zimbabwe was a British colony from 1898 to 1980, so for a century Zimbabwe assimilated white influence. For decades, the whites established themselves as the superior race, imposing an education system that worked to enhance their own interests. After independence, Zimbabwe introduced the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP), which again impacted on the education system of the country. The African Development Bank Group (ADBG) (1997:3) explains that implementation of ESAP intensified the poverty situation in Zimbabwe. The period from 2000 to 2010 is known in Zimbabwe as the decade of economic crisis. All the economic and political changes and developments, at times positively and at other times negatively, influenced the parity, empowerment and gender equality of the Zimbabweans.

2.8 ZIMBABWE EDUCATION SYSTEM BEFORE INDEPENDENCE IN 1980.

Education before independence was controlled to work to the advantage of the colonisers and not for the empowerment and equality needs of Zimbabweans. Kanyongo (2005:65) iterates that the colonial government ensured that missionaries would not 'overeducate' Africans. Kanyongo (2005:65) argues that Africans were given education that was practical in nature and designed only to produce loyal labourers. Agricultural and industrial education subjects such as carpentry and woodwork were included. These prepared Africans to be labourers, but not to the extent that they could compete with Europeans. Zindi (2005:43) gives more clarity to the whole discussion by saying that in the 1920s and 1930s many whites believed that Africans were intellectually inferior to them and were suitable only for carrying out repetitive manual labour. Fusing Zindi (2005), Kanyongo (2005) and Nherera's (2005) arguments, the researcher is of the opinion that this pre-colonial education system further removed the black majority from the corridors of empowerment and equality. This situation was even worse for the blacks in rural areas, who were disadvantaged from the onset, because they were moved to infertile lands, where poverty was inevitable. Critical institutions such as schools, even when they were built in 1980–1990, were starting to transform a very raw community whose minds had been twisted to honour the white men, to send their boys to schools only enough for them to get a white collar job and not to challenge the status quo.

2.9 ZIMBABWE'S EDUCATION SYSTEM AFTER INDEPENDENCE

Pupils cannot reach their full potential when denied equal educational opportunities. The post-independence era tried by all possible means to redress the negative aspects of the pre-colonial era as far as access and equality are concerned. The researcher concurs with Zindi's (2005:44) claim that 'when Zimbabwe achieved independence in 1980, it inherited an education system based on inequality of opportunity between coloureds, Indians, Europeans and Africans'. Zindi (2005:44) notes that despite the change in political power in 1980, some Group A schools continued to be dominated by whites, who up to 1980 possessed economic power. This statement supports the reality that economic power has a direct effect on education and vice versa. The whites who had the money continued to do well in sending their children to good schools. This is contrary to the black majority who did not have their economic power in as much as educational situations changed immediately after independence. Cognisant of Zindi's (2005:44) advice, Shizha and Kariwo (2011:5) posit that the after-independence gains in education are being undermined by factors such as the brain drain and HIV/AIDS. Shizha and Kariwo (2005:44), unlike Zindi (2005:44) argue that the post-independence status quo is explained not only by the effects of colonisation, but by aftermath factors such as skilled personnel moving to other countries and the effects of the HIV pandemic. Chapman and Austin (2002:4) bring a different approach to this discussion. They observe that there is general tension in Zimbabwe and at times a direct trade-off between the political necessity to expand enrolment in schools and the moral imperative to increase equity, the educational desire to raise quality, and the

overwhelming need to control costs. The above discussion thus brings out four factors that have affected the Zimbabwean educational system, that is, colonisation, the political and economic fluidity of the country, the HIV pandemic and the brain drain.

Having said that, the writer acknowledges that the Zimbabwean government has made massive strides in empowering the black majority through education. According to Makoni (2000:221), when the Zimbabwean government attained independence in 1980, it committed itself to the provision of universal free primary education and a massive expansion of secondary schools. According to Makoni (2000:221), at secondary schools, enrolment rose by 950.5 per cent; secondary schools increased from 177 to 1484 in 1989; and the teacher/pupil ratio shifted from 1:36 before independence to 1:45 after independence. These margins reflect great effort and commitment on the part of government. In his journal, Makoni (2000) acknowledges that the figures do not tell much about gender disparities in enrolment and access to schools. The writer agrees with Makoni (2000) and points out that in as much as seeing Zimbabweans in schools was crucial, the empowerment and equality component between boys and girls remained on the sideline.

Despite the increase in access to and enrolment of children in schools after independence, the proportion of girls in schools decreased by 1.51 per cent from 43.31 per cent in 1980 to 41.80 in 1988 (Makoni 2000:221). The researcher assumes that this decrease speaks more to gender differences that were not taken into account when the whole education system was being designed and expanded. Mukhopadhyay, Smyth and March (1999:57) iterate that in many societies, women

and girls do almost all the productive work in the home and community. Post-independence education policies did not address women's subordinate role in the home and community. Oxaal and Baden (1997:5) support Mukhopadhyay's (1999) sentiments by arguing that factors such as social and cultural attitudes and policy priorities are significant in explaining why in most developing countries women's enrolment overall is lower than that of men. Oxaal and Baden (1997:6) note women's subordinate role, which at the time of writing this dissertation is still visible in rural areas, hence the need for this research to investigate what has been done so far, given the MDGs that have clearer goals to empower women and ensure gender equality in rural areas. Briefly, the literature shows that after independence, the education system was transformed in terms of numbers, but no significant change was noticed in the effect of education on livelihoods.

2.10 ECONOMIC STRUCTURAL ADJUSTMENT PROGRAMME AND THE DECADE OF CRISIS

Literature reviewed showed economic difficulties such as those faced during the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) and years between 2000-2010 which are commonly termed the decade of crisis, when Zimbabwe hit inflation rate of above 4000 per cent. This so much affected the education sector in a very bad way (Dhliwayo, 2001:4).

Dhliwayo (2001:2) explains that the goal of ESAP in fiscal operations was to reduce government expenditure through the removal of subsidies, cost recovery, civil service

rationalisation and parastatal reform. Dhliwayo (2001:7) comments that ESAP had detrimental effects on the education system as it resulted in swelling numbers of children dropping out of school. Dhliwayo (2001: 27) argues that teachers' wages dropped and this impacted heavily on the education system at large. Makoni (2000:222) gives the example of the Mexican debt crisis, which reduced education expenditure from 5.5 per cent to 3.9 per cent between 1982 and 1983. Vedova (1989:7) in Makoni (2000) reports that during the 1981/1982 Costa Rican crisis, drop-out rates increased and enrolments decreased. This notion supports MOESAC's (2005:4) statement that when a family is faced with a financial crisis, the first area they look at to cut costs is education. In rural areas, the most disheartening thing is that owing to poverty, families are pushed even harder to send boys to school instead of girls, on the understanding that boys will invest back into the family. Girls, on the other hand, will marry and, if educated, will enrich the family into which they marry.

Makoni (2000:225) presents a 55.95 per cent enrolment of boys against 44.05 per cent for girls between 1990 and 1993. This analysis shows a significant widening gender disparity gap in enrolment after the introduction of ESAP. Makoni (2000:227) acknowledges the existence of certain disadvantages for girls, even before ESAP. In as much as this study looks objectively into factors affecting girls' enrolment and access to schools other than economic hardships brought about by ESAP, the researcher is of the opinion that economic hardships impact further on education.

2.11 PROTOCOLS, DECLARATIONS AND LEGAL FRAMEWORKS SUPPORTING GENDER EQUALITY AND WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

Zimbabwe, like many African states, has signed protocols and policies in which it has been agreed by heads of state to end gender inequality and empower women at regional and international level. Every person possesses rights that describe to what he or she is entitled (UNICEF 2012:6).

The African Union Solemn Declaration on Gender and Equality in Africa (SDGEA) commits African leaders to report on progress of gender equality and women's empowerment on the continent

The declaration calls heads of African states to reaffirm their commitment to the principle of gender equality. Heads of States agreed to expand and accelerate efforts to promote gender equality at all levels.

Among other declarations is the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). UNICEF (2011:15) argues that by accepting the 1979 CEDAW Convention, states committed themselves to taking measures to end discrimination, which includes exclusion of women in all facets of life. MDG 2 advocates for universal primary education for boys and girls. MDG 3, on which this study is premised, aims at empowering women and ensuring there is gender equality globally. In signing the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA), governments committed to promoting an active visible policy of gender mainstreaming in all their policies. Reilly (2005:188) affirms that the Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA) was a campaign that sought to situate emerging global

commitments to women within human rights frameworks that were informed by feminist principles. BPfA is a sign in Zimbabwe's political will to see women economically empowered and to have women's rights to equality observed.

In Zimbabwe, the latest Gender Policy Implementation Strategy and Work Plan covers the period 2008–2012 (MOWAGCD 2007:1). This strategy seeks to operationalize the commitment of government to gender equality and women's empowerment derived from regional, national and international statutes, conventions, declarations and decisions. As stated in MOWAGCD (2007:1), the National Gender Policy is the key policy framework for achieving gender equality and women's empowerment.

Several statutes are in place to provide the legal framework for the attainment of gender equality and women's empowerment. These, according to the National Gender Policy (2007:1), include the Matrimonial Causes Act (1986), Sexual Discrimination Removal Act (1920), Minimum Wages Act (1948), Equal Pay Regulations Act (1985), Sexual Offences Act (1997) and Domestic Violence Act (2006). At regional level, according to UNDP (2008:6), Zimbabwe signed the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Declaration on Gender and Development. This declaration seeks to ensure equal participation of women and men in development, and SADC member states must put in place mechanisms and processes for the eradication of violence against women and children. Following the discussion above, Zimbabwe, as a member of the African Union (AU), has signed the Protocol of the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights and Welfare of Children. Zimbabwe is therefore signatory to several regional and

international conventions and agreements that seek to empower women and ensure gender equality.

2.12 CONCLUSION

Defining key terms like empowerment, gender equality and parity in education made the literature reviewed relate to this study. Chapter 2 explored the link between education, empowerment and gender equality. The Rights Based Framework which is guiding this study was explained. The Zimbabwe education system enrolments and completion rates were analysed thereby putting Zimbabwe's education system in a context it can relate to gender equality and empowerment of women. Zimbabwe's education system before and after independence was discussed. Chapter 2 explains the protocols, legal frameworks and declarations supporting gender equality and empowerment of women. It ends by discussing the economic adjustment programme and the decade of crisis that had detrimental effects on education.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives a description of the procedures and processes that were involved in collecting primary data for this research in which a case study method was used. Dooley (2001:3) explains that research methodology is the means through which data are collected and put together to substantiate study findings. The writer utilised questionnaires, one-on-one interviews and focus group discussions as data collection tools for this research. Chapter 3 outlines details of the road travelled to obtain the research data. An explanation is given of the tools, samples of the research subjects, how and why this was done, discoveries made in the process, the challenges, and details of the data collection methods.

3.2 RESEARCH AREA

This research was carried out in a rural setting, that is, Ward 33 of Mt Darwin district in Zimbabwe. Geographically Ward 33 is located 70 kilometres from Mt Darwin town centre. The ward is part of Mt Darwin North constituency. Ward 33 comprises Chigango, Gomo, and Zambezi villages. The research was conducted in two of these villages, that is, Chigango and Zambezi. Two of three villages were selected to

ensure the validity of the research and elicit a balanced opinion of the survey to allow generalisation of findings. The two villages share geography, climate and scenery. Interventions in the ward are the same because the ward has one councillor, Mr Mutopa. The only secondary school in the ward is in Chigango village, while both villages have a primary school.

Ward 33 was chosen purposively by the researcher as the area of study owing to its remoteness, which is typical of rural areas in Zimbabwe. Bernard, Pelto and Werner (2000:42) note that in purposive sampling, the key informants should be well versed in the topic and willing to share information. Having grown up in Ward 33, the researcher had some assurance that the population would share their experiences on education, empowerment and equality openly. Furthermore, Ward 33's remoteness, its proximity to the border with Mozambique and, among other qualities, the scarcity of schools qualifies this ward as a true reflection of rurality in Zimbabwe. The researcher was interested in finding out the extent to which equality and economic empowerment have been implemented in rural areas that are seldom sampled for investigation, owing to being hard to reach and because of the costs associated with doing research in these communities. The researcher's assumption is that indicators of economic empowerment and gender equality are contextual. The way in which rural women and men perceive equality and empowerment is likely to be different from the way the same concepts are perceived in urban areas. Hence, it was worthwhile to choose Ward 33 of Mt Darwin as the area for this research.

3.2.1 Economic activities in Ward 33

The Ward 33 community practises subsistence agriculture. The few farmers who cultivate cash crops grow cotton. Cotton thrives in this area owing to its resistance to drought and heat. An insignificant population grows tobacco. The area falls in region IV of the geographical precipitation zone, whose rainfall is very low. Natural region IV is a semi-extensive farming region, covering about 38 per cent of Zimbabwe. Periodic seasonal droughts and severe dry spells during the rainy season are common. Crop production is therefore risky, except in certain favourable localities, where limited drought-resistant crops such as sorghum and *rapoko* are grown. Farming is based on livestock and drought-resistant fodder crops. The most common fruit is *masau*, which the communities sell in major cities and barter with other communities outside the ward.

As part of the data-gathering technique, the researcher was interested in understanding activities by Camfed and government to enhance the economic empowerment of women and gender equality. Given the close interconnectedness between gender parity in education, empowerment and gender equality, the researcher wished to elicit how the economic activities in this area bear on the economic empowerment of women and on gender equality of the men and women in Ward 33.

3.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY USED

Qualitative and quantitative research, focusing mainly on collecting qualitative data was done. Focus group discussions, one on one interviews and questionnaires were the data collection methods that were used.

3.3.1 Qualitative data

Qualitative data collection using focus group discussions and one-on-one interviews was done for this research. Flick (2002: x) defines qualitative research as a type of research that intends to approach the world 'out there' (not in specialised research settings such as laboratories) to understand, describe and sometimes explain social phenomena from the inside by analysing people's or individual's experiences and unpacking how people construct the world around them, what they are doing and what is happening to them in terms that are meaningful and offer rich insight. Punch (2004:4) simplifies the qualitative research definition as empirical research in which the data are not in the form of numbers.

Patton (2002:17) acknowledges interviews as one method of collecting qualitative data. For example, the following open-ended question was asked: 'Are there activities being implemented by MOESAC, Camfed or MOWAGCD that aim at empowering women economically and ensuring gender equality in this ward?' As a follow-up, the next question was 'If your answer above is yes, explain what these activities are?' Such questions ensured that respondents would give as much qualitative information as possible, since they were not restricted in what they could say. Probes in interviews and focus group discussions yielded in-depth responses

about people's experiences, perceptions, opinions, feelings and knowledge. As an example, in one of the focus group discussions, women were asked why they said they did not make decisions in the home. One respondent answered: 'What can we make decisions on in the home, as poor as we are.' The researcher asked what they meant and why they described themselves as too poor to make decisions when they were married women. These probes brought out more information that was not anticipated by the writer. Qualitative data made the data collection process so informative and interesting.

Data that were collected consisted of verbatim quotations with sufficient context to be interpretable. For example, on explaining their powerlessness as women and how they are not valued by their husbands, one respondent was asked why they did not go back to school to further their studies, if they thought lack of education was their major enemy in economic empowerment and gender equality. The respondent replied that the husband would say: 'What on earth would you produce even when you go to school. You failed to attend school when you were at your mother's house and you want to do it here? Now this is not the place where you can do that.' Such verbatim statements made the researcher understand the struggles the women are facing in their quest for equality and economic empowerment. They illustrated the kind of lives they lead in their homes and their low negotiation skills and powers as the men came out so strongly to give decrees and laws in the home. The researcher observed activities and interactions at first hand. This made understanding of views and interpretation of opinions more objective and reliable. Patton (2002:17) explains that data from these kinds of observations consist of rich, detailed descriptions,

including the context in which the observations were made. According to Cassel and Symon (2005:21), a qualitative research interview is a method that most research participants accept readily. Women enjoyed talking about their experiences in economic empowerment and gender equality, whether it was to share enthusiasm or to air complaints. During focus group discussions, one could pick up the underlying understanding and emotions associated with the responses participants gave. These could have been necessitated by personal experience or by what they observed in the communities as far as gender equality and women economic empowerment are concerned. The researchers had an opportunity to probe and seek clarity when an ambiguous response was given. In the end, they had information that was satisfactory and could be directly linked to the topic under study, and that made interpretation easy and cleared a lot of assumptions.

3.3.2 Quantitative data

Mouton (2005:132) states that quantitative methods allow for replicability, generalizability, and reliability on planning programmes. He stresses how useful the anonymity of responses is to sensitive topics. To emphasise Mouton's argument, Punch (2004:33) states that quantitative data bring out the voices of the respondents and relate their minds to the study. Quantitative methods assisted the researcher to learn how many, how often and the extent to which the respondents agreed with a particular concept. Closed-ended questions determined what proportion of the audience had certain opinions, behavioural intentions, attitudes to and knowledge of

gender equality and women empowerment. They ensured that at the end the researcher had a clear percentage of respondents that were of a particular view.

Quantitative research assesses the extent to which policies on paper have been implemented. For example, 28 per cent of respondents argued that they understood gender equality, unlike the remaining 72 per cent. Quantitative data allowed comparability and assessment of claims that were made during the study. It also enabled the researcher to understand discrepancies.

3.4 THE CASE STUDY METHOD

In a case study method of data collection, a researcher does an in-depth study of a phenomenon with a particular group(s) of people or objects (Ranjit 2005:203). Creswell (2003:61) defines a case study as an exploration of a bounded system through in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information-rich text. The researcher concurs with Morgan and Smircich (2003:96), who argue that the suitability of a research method derives from the nature of the social phenomenon to be explored. The phenomenon under scrutiny here, that is, gender equality and women empowerment, is determined by what individuals and groups think about themselves and about what is going on. It is also defined by the experiences respondents have gone through and their perceptions of the phenomenon.

Yin (1993:33) suggests that the term 'case study' refers to an event, an entity, or even a unit of analysis. In this study, the unit of analysis is Ward 33 of Mt Darwin

district. The contemporary phenomenon being investigated is MDG 3 and the economic empowerment of women and gender equality in this community.

3.4.1 ADVANTAGES OF A CASE STUDY METHOD

The case study method, like any other research methods, had its strengths in the field. Noor (2008:1602) confirms this writer's experience when he explains that a case study method allows the researcher to gain a holistic view of a certain phenomenon or series of events. Using case study as the method for this research provided a rounded picture on the extent to which gender equality and women empowerment have been implemented in ward 33 since various sources of information were used. It captured the emergent and immanent properties of life in Ward 33 community and allowed in-depth information from individuals through the questionnaires and interviews. Group and individual thinking were explored too through the focus groups that were administered. Focusing on a particular case gave the researcher ample time to do an in-depth analysis of the phenomenon under study. It hence became easy to manage logistically, and in terms of the costs of carrying out the research.

3.5 ETHICAL ISSUES AND PROTOCOLS

Throughout the research, the researcher ensured that the rights of the people who were involved were respected and protected. All protocols were observed and clearance to do the research was granted by the Mt Darwin district authorities.

It is a pre-requisite for every research and intervention carried out in Zimbabwe that government clearance must be granted before commencing the survey. Since this research was carried out in Mt Darwin district, clearance was sought from the district administrator's office, which granted permission to carry out the study. Using the authority granted by the district administrator, the researcher presented the request to the Ward 33 councillor so that he was aware of the survey happening in his area and could grant authority to collect data on development from the Ward 33 villages. The councillor was supportive of this idea. He was moved that the researcher comes from this particular area and hence was keen to support interventions by the people that had developmental goals for the area.

Research means the collection of information and material by the researcher from the subjects based on trust and confidentiality (Mouton 2001:243). It was vital that the participants' feelings, interests and rights should be protected at all times. Since it was done in rural areas, the researcher ensured that the research was carried out in July, when the villagers had completed agricultural tasks that might otherwise have disrupted their ability to meet and give time to the survey.

The questionnaires did not require personal details so this protected the subjects' right to privacy, anonymity and confidentiality. Before holding a focus group discussion or administering a questionnaire, the researcher and assistants sought consent from the subject after a brief summary of what the study was about, the possible time the questioning could take, and assurances that the information would remain anonymous and that it was vital for the researcher to obtain the data. As is emphasised by Godwin (2007:35), all respondents volunteered to provide their time,

ideas and knowledge of the research topic to the researcher. The researcher was assured that the respondents reserved the right to withdraw from the research if they felt they were being jeopardised or did not wish to continue with the research.

The researcher was careful not to raise the subjects' expectations during the research. The research being done in a rural set-up, the researcher made it clear at the beginning of every focus group discussion (FGD) and interview that the information that was being collected was needed mainly for studying purposes, lest the respondents expected to be paid in some way after the research.

The researcher ensured that consent was sought before getting information from all research participants i.e. both adults and students. In order to get information from the children themselves as far as education and gender equality, five boys and five girls who are current scholars were interviewed. The ten students were drawn from mature Forms 3 and 4 students. Conducting research with students requires ethical considerations that cannot be assumed to be catered for by the adults' (Flewitt 2005:553). The researcher asked consent from the school head, who allowed the interviewees to obtain information from the students. The researcher explained the purpose of the research explicitly to the students. Students were told not to feel obliged to respond to questions with which they were not comfortable and reminded that they could withdraw at any point if they did not feel comfortable with continuing with the questionnaire. In this survey the students' voices and experiences were important in understanding the progress of gender equality and empowerment in Ward 33 and to obtain their opinions on the role being played by civil society organisations and civil society in ensuring that education, gender equality and

women empowerment are taken forward. The researcher made sure that students had full information about the research and understood the possible impact of the research on them as students. This fulfils what Denzin (1989:83) reiterates, that is, that information and stories collected in a survey are given under a promise that the information giver will be protected.

3.6 TRAINING AND RECRUITING RESEARCH ASSISTANTS

For effectiveness in the collection of data, the researcher required assistance in data gathering. Two research assistants were trained to enable standardisation of questioning and recording techniques. These were a female postgraduate from the Psychology Department of the University of Zimbabwe, and a male final-year student from Zimbabwe Women's University. Both had good backgrounds in research ethics, making it a lot more beneficial for the research as they brought in their own types of expertise. They were conversant with Shona, which is the local language of the area. Communication became easy and well managed between the research assistants and the respondents. Training was administered before they went into the field. A pilot study gave them further hands-on training before starting the research. By the time the field research commenced, the researcher was fully aware that all who were directly involved in it were on the same level of understanding for the extraction of quality data. The training included these specific areas:

- Honesty and thoroughness as essential qualities when carrying out interviews

- Methods of compiling the sampling frame and interval and obtaining a sample
Methods of asking the questions with the use of the questionnaire and ensuring they read the question precisely as it appeared on the questionnaires and recording the response as it was given.
- Respect for interviewees' privacy to allow them to respond to those questions with which they are comfortable.
- Shared understanding of the major concepts in this research, that is, gender equality and women empowerment. This helped them to record correctly information they were given during the research data collection process.
- Ethical issues, including appropriate dress code in a rural setting, and respect for the people in the field

3.7 SAMPLING AND SAMPLE SIZE

A mixture of respondents participated in this research in order to ensure representativeness of the study results. Key (1997:31) describes a representative sample as one that has strong external validity in relation to the target population the sample is meant to represent. Rundblad (2006:3) concurs with Key (1997) by explaining that a representative sample is important as it allows conclusions of the research to be generalised. In this particular research, generalizability is to Ward 33 as a whole and not to the particular informants who took part in the research. Still in the same discussion, Marshall (1996:522) talks about how rare it is to practically,

efficiently and ethically study a whole population, hence the need to come up with an effective sample for the study.

Ward 33 has a total population of 5 059 people, which is about 2.8 per cent of the whole Mt Darwin population. The survey informants constitute about 2.4 per cent of the total Ward 33 population. Of the 131 respondents, 65 are men and 66 are women. To have a balance in opinion, the researcher wanted to have 50 per cent representation for the genders but women are it in leadership which resulted in men taking 49.6 informants versus 50.4 percent of women.

Men and women of ages 20–30, 31–40 and 40–65 were interviewed. These age groups, according to the researcher, represented the different generations who could potentially hold varying opinions about the subjects of women empowerment, gender equality and education. Having men and women in the sample aimed at tapping biological connotations and influence on perceptions each gender could have. Bryman (2001:29) explains that the validity of a study is concerned with the integrity of the conclusions that are generated from a piece of research. To ensure this integrity, this research sampled subjects from the given categories.

Well-balanced opinions are important. Grinnell and Unral (2011:93) remind researchers not to introduce bias in surveys from the way they select samples. It was assumed by the writer that men and women are likely to have different opinions on what gender equality entails or should entail, and to define economic empowerment differently, hence the target inclusion of men and women in equal numbers during the data-gathering process.

Involving 9 community leaders in the sample ensured credibility of the study. Bryman (2001:32) notes that this is critical. In rural communities, local leaders are overseers of development activities. Their involvement meant obtaining views from the development focal points in the area. It ensured authenticity of the study. Table 3.1 below gives a summary of the respondents that were involved in the survey.

Table 3.1: Summary of study population

Group sample	Groups	Total number of respondents	Comment
Focus group discussion with women 20–30 years	2	18	The groups had nine participants each It was critical in the research to have the voices of young adult females, hence this group
Focus group discussion with women 31–60 years	2	19	The intention was to have nine participants in each group. In one group, 10 participants turned up. Elderly women's opinions were critical to get balanced opinions, given the existence of young adults in the study
Focus group discussions with men 20–30 years	2	16	Eight participants turned up in each group Young men's opinions in the survey were critical as this represented a young generation of men who are living in Ward 33, who could have been affected by the same issues on education, equality and empowerment as the girls and women
Focus group discussions with men 31–60 years	2	15	Eight participants turned up in one group while the other group had 7

			<p>participants.</p> <p>Having women of the same age, an earlier generation of men was essential to allow the researcher to understand opinions from men who grew up in different generations</p>
One-on-one interview with the local leaders	1	9	<p>Nine local leaders representing different leadership factions were interviewed, that is, the headmen, committee chair for livestock, committee chairperson for food aid, chairperson for the ruling political party, heads of the two primary schools in the ward, the village development committee chairperson, the schools management committee chairperson and the councillor</p>
One-on-one interviews with general community members (questionnaires)	1	40	<p>20 male and 20 female members</p>
One-on-one interviews with Camfed (questionnaires)		2	<p>Women empowerment department manager and country director</p> <p>As the organisation representing civil society, interviews with Camfed representatives made the researcher contextualise the environment in which the organisation work in relation to the opinions that were derived from the data collected from Ward 33 community</p>
One-on-one interview with MOWAGCD and MOESAC representatives		2	<p>Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development deputy director who happens to be a man. And MOESAC representative is a woman.</p> <p>MOESAC and MOWAGCD</p>

			represented the government of Zimbabwe in education, women empowerment and gender equality, respectively, hence it was critical to get the overall governmental role and interventions under way
Schoolchildren (5 boys and 5 girls)		10	They gave current information on the challenges facing scholars in Ward 33, the role they see civil society and government playing in the overall development of the girl child in the ward
Total respondents		131	

3.8 SAMPLING METHODS USED

Informant selection is critical to every research. The way a sample is selected determines the authenticity, quality, reliability and validity of data that will be collected (James & Busher 2006:406). For this particular research, purposeful and random sampling methodologies were employed. James and Busher (2006:406) acknowledge other writers such as Flick (2000) and Denzin and Lincoln (2000), who reiterate the need for reliability and validity of research data that emanates from the chosen sample. This study did not leave the sampling of subjects to chance. Purposive sampling method was used in the selection of organisations, ministries and local leadership representatives. The random sampling method in order to cater for the generality of ward 33 population was used to draw focus group discussions respondents, one on one and questionnaire sample.

Bernard et al (in Tongco 2007:1) highlight that no amount of data analysis can make up for improperly collected data, hence the careful sampling methods that were used to ensure proper data was collected for this particular research.

3.8.1 Purposeful sampling method explained in detail

The purposeful sampling method is a non-random method of sampling in which the researcher selects 'information-rich samples' for study in depth (Patton 1990:169). Information-rich cases, according to Patton (2002:243), strategically and purposefully determine the number of cases, depending on study purpose and resources. Bernard et al (2000:176) state: 'In purposeful sampling, you decide the purpose you want the informants to serve and you go out to find some relevant samples to meet that need.' The purposeful sampling method was used to select the organisation that represented civil society organisations in this study, that is, Camfed. It was also utilised when selecting individuals who represented their institutions in giving out data during the survey.

In this research for example equal numbers of respondents of different genders, age groups, and from the two villages were sampled purposefully to obtain rich and representative opinions of what has been done in the fields of gender equality and empowerment.

Black (1999:118) notes that purposive sampled samples are not easily defensible as being representative, owing to potential researcher subjectivity. However, this particular research required information from what Tongco (2008:2) describes as the knowledgeable and experienced members of the society, who are most likely to

provide required information for the survey. For example, in institutions, only directors and their designated individuals could respond on behalf of the institution, making purposeful sampling the best method of obtaining participants. The same applied to interviews with community leaders. Only specific people could be interviewed, hence it was appropriate to use purposeful sampling method.

3.8.2 Random sampling method

To have a sample and results that would allow generalisation, a random sampling method was used. Random sampling can be highly representative if all subjects participate (Black 1999:118). Babbie (2001:209) emphasises that random sampling is highly effective, since each member of the society has an equal chance of being chosen. This guarantees a sample that is representative, thereby ensuring validity of the conclusions to be drawn from the sample. The researcher was mindful of Marshal's (1996:523) caution. Marshal (1996:523) explains that in qualitative research, choosing someone at random is as good as asking a passer-by to repair a broken-down car rather than a garage mechanic. The passer-by might make a good attempt, but the mechanic is more likely to be productive. At every village the researchers were to obtain information from every third household if it had the right respondent in terms of gender and age. If not, the research assistants moved to the next household, that is, the fourth. If in the fourth household, they did not find the right respondent, the next target would be the third household from that fourth one.

In conclusion, the researcher used random sampling and purposive sampling to produce the most relevant and helpful data, depending on whether it was leaders, institutions or the general populace that were being interviewed.

3.9 DATA COLLECTION METHODS AND RESEARCH TOOLS

Data collection methods and research tools need to be appropriate for the research problem and the research audience. This researcher was cognisant of the fact that inaccurate data collection tools can impact negatively on the results of a study. For this particular research, primary data was collected through focus group discussions, interviews and questionnaires.

3.9.1 Focus group discussions

A total of eight focus group discussions were conducted during this research. Putcha and Potter (2004:6) explain that in focus group discussion the moderator sets the stage with prepared questions or an interview guide. They iterate that the ultimate goal of focus groups is to elicit participants' feelings, attitudes and perceptions about a selected topic. Similarly, Krueger (2000:7) notes that focus group discussions present subjects with a relaxed and comfortable atmosphere of disclosure, in which people can share their ideas, experiences and attitudes about a topic, since no answer is deemed right or wrong. The researcher, as Putcha and Potter (2004:7) suggest, administered focus group discussions with a prepared guide. The guide made ideas flow easily. It also assisted in putting the group back on track after

heated discussions that would have derailed participants with emotions and feelings. Being the principal researcher, from the onset of focus group discussions the writer assumed the role of moderating, facilitating, listening and observing participants' gestures and expressions. Through focus group discussions the study gathered qualitative data from a total of 32 men and 37 women in this ward. Respondents were categorised in terms of their age, that is, 20–30, and then 31–60-year-olds representing their own category. Gender and age categorisation allowed comparability of responses between men and women. It also highlighted similarities and differences between men and women of varying age groups in understanding practices in gender equality and women empowerment in the ward.

To ensure data were captured consistently, one research assistant took minutes of all focus group discussions, while the other video-recorded the proceedings. The use of the camera and note taker was aimed at being able to compare findings at the end of the focus group discussion. This was done with the full knowledge of what Manson (2004:43) talks about when he emphasises the need for every researcher to heed the legal and confidential connotations of recording information during a focus group discussion. Consent to record was sought before interviewing started and neither images nor recorded voices were used beyond verifying notes that were taken by the note-taker. A simple questionnaire with four general questions was administered at the start of every focus group discussion. This was a way of warming up the respondents. The warm-up carried simple general questions and required respondents to answer with their own opinions. This allowed for a smooth start where all respondents were ready to cooperate in the discussion.

3.9.2 One-on-one interviews

Having carried out focus group discussions, as elaborated above, the study gathered information using questionnaires that were administered one to one. One-on-one interviews allowed the collection of personal opinions without being influenced by peer interaction. The writer noted that people were willing to share information and even to give their personal experiences at one-on-one interviews. It was easy to pose follow-up questions and obtain a direct response. Greenbaum (1998:5) cites certain disadvantages of one-on-one interviews in terms of the cost. The researcher acknowledges that one-on-one interviews took more time to obtain information than focus group discussions. However, trained research assistants ensured that quality data were collected within the agreed time. The researcher had foreseen the time one-on-one interviews were going to take and factored in this time and costs on the amended research schedule. Research assistants were prepared in advance on the possibility of spending more time on one-on-one interviews and the travelling that entailed.

A total of 52 participants – that is, 20 men, 20 women, 9 participants in leadership positions and 3 representatives from Camfed, MOESAC and MOWAGCD – were interviewed in one-on-one interviews. Nine leaders, one a woman, took part in the in-depth interviews. Face-to-face interviews, as Seale (2006:419) commented, allowed the researcher to explore what was happening in the ward to advance gender equality and women empowerment in these rural areas. They often provided the

researcher with rich and sensitive material. Information from these interviews allowed the researcher to understand what has been done and what is currently happening as a result of civil society organisations and government interventions in gender equality and empowerment of women. One-on-one interviews enabled young women in the ward to testify the effects of education and the challenges faced by them that are caused by gender inequalities and economic disempowerment of families.

3.9.3 Questionnaire outline

Questionnaires were a key data collection tool used in this research. The questionnaire design and outline were carried out with Brace's (2008:18) advice in mind that too long a questionnaire can affect the interviewee and interviewer owing to boredom and fatigue. The questionnaires requested the individuals taking part in the interviews to indicate their highest levels of education, that is, 'Completed primary school', 'Completed secondary school', 'Completed tertiary education', and 'Informal education'. Another option was 'Other' level of education, in which the respondents explained their qualification. The researcher was interested in understanding whether these education levels had an impact on gender equality and women empowerment.

Another important variation in the respondents was marital status. Economic empowerment and gender equality affect people of different marital statuses differently. Inclusion of respondents of all marital statuses ensured all possible variations in opinion were taken into account as far as the topic was concerned.

The questionnaire included questions that sought a) to elicit the respondents' understanding of gender equality and empowerment activities in the ward; b)

organisations and government activities geared at enhancing gender equality and women empowerment; c) the way in which respondents perceived education as affecting gender equality and empowerment; and d) what the respondents recommended for the attainment of MDG 3.

In summary, the questionnaire investigated the extent to which MDG 3 has been achieved in Ward 33. Specific attention was given to factors that affect girls' education, the extent to which access to and completion of education influence economic empowerment and gender equality, and to the role that Camfed and the government of Zimbabwe are playing in ensuring the overall development of the girl child in rural areas.

3.10 SUPPLEMENTARY SURVEY

After the initial study, this researcher realised that the data that had been collected were not enough to draw conclusions. The initial survey had not obtained direct information from the organisations in question, but relied on what respondents had said about the organisations. To this effect, a supplementary survey was commissioned. This survey aimed at obtaining information that would elicit people's opinions more directly on what precisely Camfed, MOESAC and MOWAGCD were doing to address MDG 3, specifically the areas of gender parity in education, women empowerment and gender equality. The supplementary survey filled gaps in people's opinions on the challenges girls are facing in accessing education, empowerment and equality.

3.11 RATINGS USED IN THE STUDY

The study used various words to try to rate opinions and observations. These included:

- A) Very good, very successful, very empowered
- B) Good, successful, empowered
- C) Somewhat good, somewhat successful, somewhat empowered
- D) Not good, not successful, not empowered
- E) Not at all good, not at all successful, not at all empowered.

Words starting with 'very', that is, in category 'A)' above, show progress of 80 per cent and above. Opinions rated in the 'A)' category explain overwhelming progress in that particular area. Words such as 'good', 'successful' and 'empowered' depict significant progress in that particular area. The words in category 'B)' are rated 60 to 79 per cent. On average, words in the 'C)' category are rated 50 to 59 per cent. These in simple terms can be explained as not being significantly good, but not on the bad side of the scale. The word that describes this scale is 'somewhat'. Below somewhat are words that carry a 'not' before the descriptive word, such as 'not good' 'not successful' and 'not empowered' and they fall into category 'D)'. These are below average and are valued between 35 and 49 per cent. At the worst end of the scale are words in the 'E)' category. These words are 'not at all good', 'not at all successful' and 'not at all empowered'. These descriptions rate 34 per cent and below. They show staggering progress. A lot of effort and work needs to be done to raise these to

average. The other rating scale involved figures 1 to 5. One (1) has the same value as 'very good,' that is, 80 per cent. Two (2) carries the same weight as 'good', 'successful' and 'empowered'. Three (3) is the average. Four (4), like 'not good', 'not successful' and 'not empowered', has a value of 35 to 49 per cent. The worst figure (5) means the rating is below 34 per cent and huge investments are needed to make a difference.

3.12 DATA ANALYSIS

Analysing data was done carefully and critically. Patton (2002:463) observes that developing a manageable classification or coding scheme is the first step of analysis. Yin (1984:99) adds that data analysis consists of examining, categorising, tabulating, or otherwise recombining the evidence to address the initial propositions of a study. Krueger (2000:107) states that the initial principle of analysis is that the problem drives the analysis. Raw data were therefore grouped according to the categories of gender, age group, level of education and type of data collection. All debriefings were recorded and this assisted the researcher to obtain feedback from the other team members. The researcher read all the summaries from the field and made notes of trends and patterns. Actual words used in the responses were analysed, and their context and internal consistency were checked. Big ideas resonating from the data were established. Responses from the subjects that expressed their views on gender parity, economic empowerment and gender equality were categorised. Using this information, the extent to which MDG 3 has been achieved was deduced.

Kruger (2000:28) states that analysing data derived from focus group discussions should use an inductive process. This is a process in which understanding of issues is based on the discussion as opposed to testing or confirming a preconceived hypothesis or theory. The analysis included an in-depth study of the events, experiences and topic in order to describe the context of the experience as was informed by the focus group discussions. The researcher is aware of the complexities in analysing qualitative data. To counter these, the data were grouped in categories and an objective analysis was done. This ensured the analysis process was systematic and verifiable. Data analysis is one of the most critical elements in this survey as it meant assembling all the information in the survey and making sense out of it.

3.13 CONCLUSION

Chapter 3 gave insight into the way in which the writer collected information to ascertain the extent to which MDG 3 has been implemented in Ward 33. It explained why and from whom data were collected and the purpose the data collection tools served in the data collection process. Data analysis methods the researcher used and the general journey in data collection were outlined. Chapter 4 below analyses the data that were collected, as well as the findings of the research.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

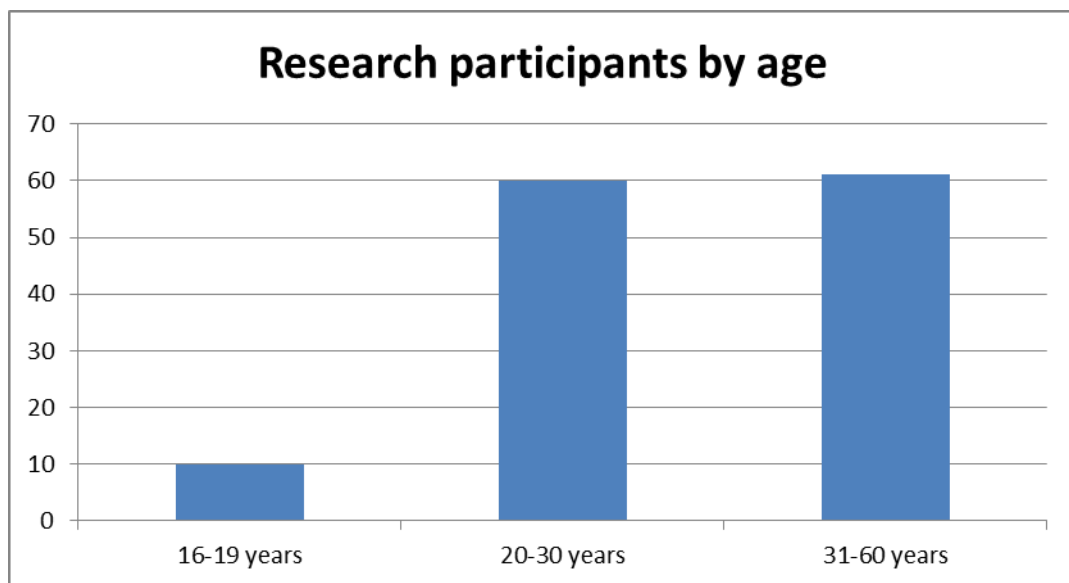
This chapter presents and discusses the research findings. These findings are derived from focus group discussions, one-on-one interviews with community leaders and the community at large, as well as representatives of MOWAGCD, MOESAC and Camfed. The analysis includes independent observations of primary data, examines qualitative and quantitative evidence, and reconciles these with the literature reviewed in this research. Results in this analysis have been presented in the form of explanations and discussions, aided by pie charts, bar graphs and tables for clarity and emphasis on what emerged from the survey.

4.2 PARTICIPANTS' DEMOGRAPHIES

To allow for objective interpretation of the study results, the sampling was done with the cognitive inclusion of the age groups and genders of the respondents. The highest level of the subject's education and his or her marital status were recorded on the questionnaire, as this gave additional information about the participant. This is illustrated in the Appendix 1, in which the sample questionnaires are presented. The researcher conducted gender- and age-segregated focus group discussions, as explained in Table 3.1.

4.2.1 Age categories of informants

As illustrated in Figure 4.1 below, 68 participants, the majority, were aged 31 to 60 years and the minority were of school going age, that is, 16–19 year category. Figure 4.1 below illustrates the number of research participants disaggregated by age.



Figure

4.1: Number of research participants by age

4.2.2 Gender of informants

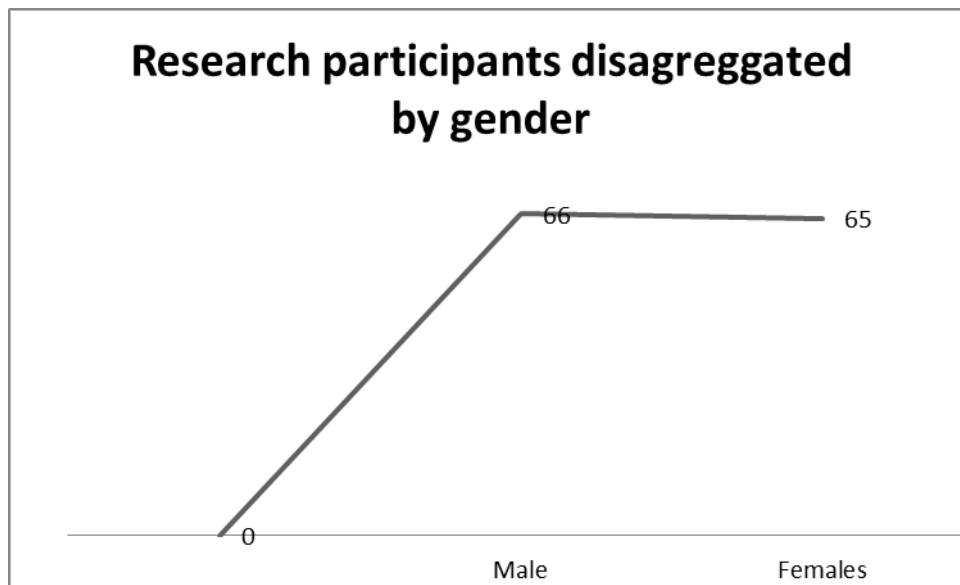


Figure 4.2

Sixty five women and 66 men as is shown in Figure 4.2 above participated in the survey. The initial plan was that women and men would each have 50 per cent representation to ensure a balance of opinion in the ward. The writer accepted this difference in women and men interviewed, as in itself it had a bearing on the power dynamics in the community that explained women's disempowerment and gender inequality issues in the ward. This disparity between interviewed men and women mostly came about from women's absence in positions of power. For example, eight men and one woman that were interviewed represented the leadership of the ward.

4.2.3 Education level of participants

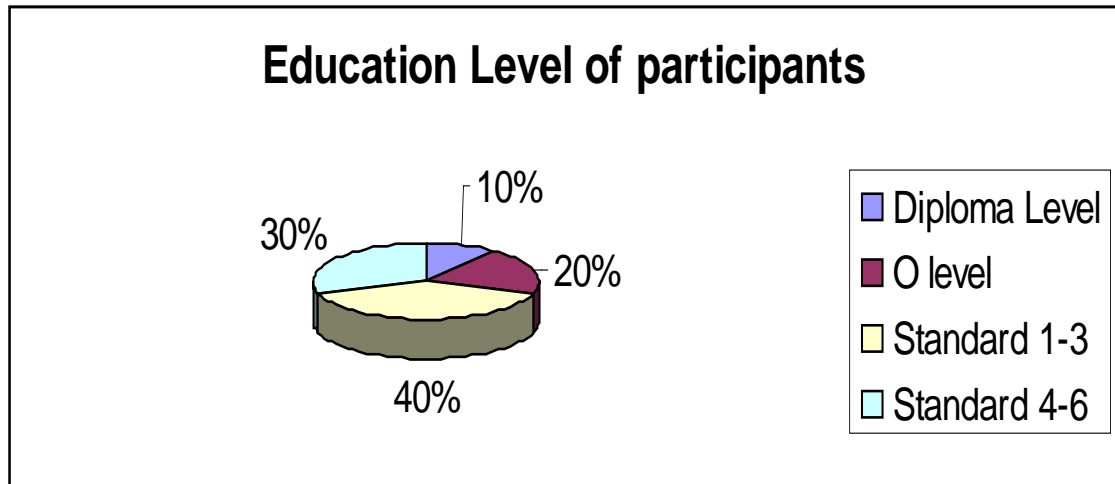


Figure 4.3: Education level of participants

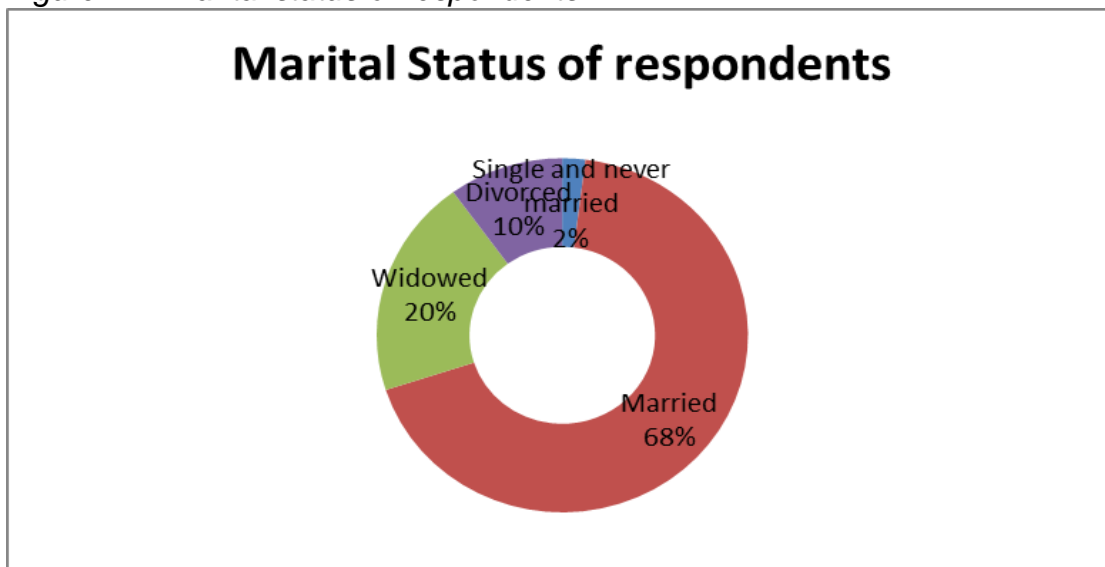
Figure 4.3 shows that 40 per cent of informants had limited education, that is, Standard 1–3. Standards are an educational attainment classification from the colonial era. Standard 1 is equivalent to today's Grade 3. Of the 40 per cent who completed Standard 1–3, 77 per cent were women, showing the much-weakened educational position of women in the ward.

Only 10 per cent of the population held diplomas. Of those with tertiary education, 20 per cent were women. None of these women are from the community, but are heads of schools, teachers, and ministry and civil society representatives who were interviewed.

4.2.4 Marital status of respondents

As shown in Figure 4.4, two percent of the total respondents had never married. The survey sampled people aged 20 and above. Having only two percent people out of the sample of 131 subjects having never married, showed a high marriage rate among the sampled participants. This to some extent shows how far children go with education in this ward, as post-secondary education is not deemed an important goal in life. If one continues with education, at the age of 20, one is expected to be in the early years of tertiary education.

Figure 4.4: Marital status of respondents



Ten per cent of the population had divorced, while 20 per cent were widowed and the majority at 68 per cent were married. These figures demonstrate that the community still places so much value on the institution of marriage. Since only 2 per cent of interviewees had never been married, this implies early marriages. Early marriages impact on the extent to which people proceed with education and consequently adversely affect the empowerment of women when the husbands, who are said to be

the decision makers, take up the decision-making role so early in women's lives. A young woman would not have an opportunity to make decisions for herself because she moves from her natal home, where she is under her father's or parents' rule, to being governed by her husband in her marital home. As such, the young woman does not get to know herself or to question authority. Hence a vicious cycle of disempowerment and inequalities surrounds the young, uneducated woman who marries early in life.

4.3 WARD 33 STATISTICS ON PASS RATES AND COMPLETION RATES

Name of school	2011 pass rate	2012 pass rate
Bandimba Primary School	0%	11.36%
Chigango Primary school	12.5%	10%
Zambezi Primary school	20%	15.79%
Chigango Secondary School	-	14%

Table 4.3.1 Official statistics from Mount Darwin district education office

Statistics in Table 4.3.1 above shows a decrease in pass rate for Zambezi and Chigango primary schools, which dropped by 4.21% and 2.5%, respectively, between 2011 and 2012. Bandimba Primary school had an increase from 0% in 2011 to 11.36% in 2012, which is commendable. The O-Level 2012 pass rate for Chigango Secondary School, which is the only secondary school in the ward, was 14 per cent.

These results show a worrisome trend in terms of children's academic achievement. As articulated by the participants, poor performance impacts negatively on children's continuity with education, and ultimately affects their economic empowerment and gender equality in their adulthood. This does not mean that government and civil society are not doing what they are supposed to do, as confirmed by the study; challenges facing rural education are growing deeper and deeper. This leads to minimal assistance.

4.3.1 Mount Darwin District total enrolment in 2013

Official statistics from the district education office for 2013 show that of the 49 007 children in Mt Darwin District Primary School, 24 692 are boys, and the other 24 315 are girls. A total of 55 319 students in secondary school recorded 27 841 boys and 27 478 girls. The gender gap in school grows larger; the higher one goes up the ladder of education.

This enrolment pattern explains the need for ensuring equality in access to education for both boys and girls since boys are outnumbering girls at primary and secondary level.

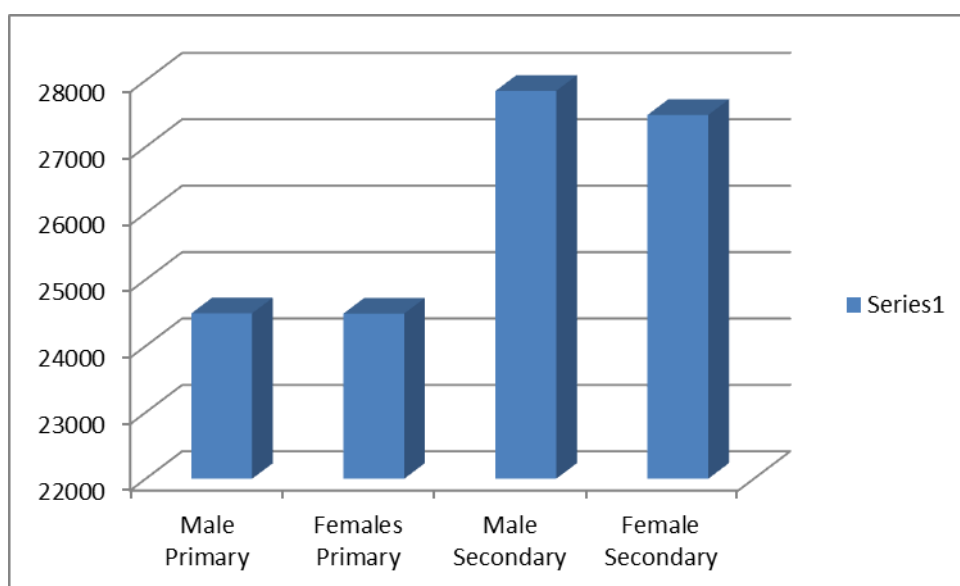


Figure 4.3.1.1 Official 2013 statistics from Mount Darwin education office

4.4 BARRIERS TO ACCESS, RETENTION AND COMPLETION OF BASIC EDUCATION

Factors affecting girls' education are varied and numerous. The researcher categorised these factors as social, cultural and economic. Section 4.4.1 below explains these factors in detail.

4.4.1 Social and environmental factors

Thirty-four per cent of interviewees mentioned social and environmental factors as major aspects that affect children's education in rural areas. Interviewees iterated

that low student motivation owing to lack of exposure to other environments leads students to discontinue their education.

Exposure is an essential aspect of children's learning. The survey responses revealed that some children drop out of school; some do not access school institutions; and some fail to remain in or complete primary or secondary education owing to lack of exposure to environments that enlighten and inspire them to achieve more after childhood. One school-leaver, who had completed her O-Levels, pointed out that one of the issues that made her friends drop out of school was the lack of exposure to a world that was different from what they were used to. She stated:

A child could have only seen buses and scotch carts as their only means of transport, this child cannot visualise himself in an aeroplane and let alone owning their own vehicle. All the time they think the life they lead in the rural areas does not require much of an education, so why trouble themselves.

Hence being exposed to a different kind of life is critical to fostering a sense of what might be. During the survey, the research team interviewed some participants who claimed to have finished school. On probing their highest level of schooling, the adolescents shared that they had finished Grade 7. This response shows mind limitation in terms of lack of understanding that one can go beyond Grade 7 education. It also highlights that young people in the community do not have role models from whom to draw inspiration as far as continuing with education is concerned. For a non-exposed child, dropping out of school to pursue money-making

options is the only logical livelihood choice, even if the earnings come from working in an exploitative environment.

According to the respondents, success in education is measured solely by academic performance, given the limited opportunity for sports and other extracurricular activities. Schools in Ward 33 are not well resourced to uphold talents other than academic excellence. Therefore, a child who is not doing well academically might quit school.

Family economic status, the value the family places on their sons and daughters, family size, household chores and child guardianship resonated as being key to determining the fate of the child's education. Raynor (2006:117) explains that in Bangladesh, girls have to deal with the burden of having been born female. They are generally seen as being non-productive, in terms of the high dowry that must be paid, and the misplaced investment in daughters who will be lost in marriage, the need to preserve a girl's 'purity', and the high risk girls place on family reputation, should they break the moral codes (Raynor 2006:117).

Lack of parental guidance contributes to the household factors that hinder girls' access, retention and completion of education. The research, unlike the literature reviewed, revealed that parents lack clear vision for their children, whose roots emanate from their own lack of education. This has a negative impact on access, retention and completion of education. The researcher defines the parental absence that emerged from the research as more than physical absence, but also psychological, which occurs when a parent is physically available, but cannot provide

the mental and visionary guidance for the children's education. Some interviewees stated that if their children could read and write, that is, are literate, that will be enough. Therefore, parents' understanding of the importance of education is an essential influence on whether children continue their education.

4.4.2 Economic factors

Lack of fees as highlighted in figure 4.5 is the most influencing cause of children dropping out of school. Pregnancy and marriage which in figure 4.5 again are the second and 3rd most affecting issues leading to dropping out of school both at the end points at economic challenges the people are facing. Lack of basic clothing such as uniforms and sanitary wear is another major cause of dropping out of school. In Ward 33, some girls resort to get-rich-quick solutions by marrying wealthy older men. The value families place on their girls, be it in the Ward 33, Zimbabwe or Bangladesh, is compromised when the family faces economic challenges. As mentioned in section 2.4, families allocate their meagre resources last to education, given other economic pressures, in a bid to survive. The survey results agreed with this assertion. Some parents could not see why they should spend their last resources on educating a girl, since she would just get married, meaning that her new family would benefit from the investment. Based on the findings of this research, the issues of choosing whom to send to school in rural communities such as Ward 33 is more of an economic decision, not so much a gender preferential one. If a family has enough resources to educate all its children, then daughters and sons all have the opportunity to go to school. Poverty is therefore a major factor that leads families

to take the difficult decision of making education a matter of moral rightness, in contrast to a human right.

The research findings confirm MOESAC's (2004:5) argument that children who head families are most likely to face economic difficulties and hence drop out of school. Girls assume caring roles the moment parents or guardians die or relocate to other countries to look for jobs. This exposes children to severe poverty and in most cases makes them drop out of school. This is confirmed by the findings in figure 4.6 that points out that 76 percent of respondents considered boys to have better chances of education than girls. This assertion is also supported by MOESAC (2004:5).

Similar to FAO (2004:17), the survey results show that HIV-related care, responsibilities and ultimately resource constraints in child-headed households negatively affect children's education especially girls. In most cases, older children in a child-headed family ultimately leave school to look for paid work, so they can fend for their siblings or meet the medical costs of their ailing parent or guardian.

Child labour, which the survey confirmed in most cases is the result of poverty, was cited as a critical barrier to children's education. Respondents referred to children assisting their parents and guardians with household chores before going to school. Some families, especially during busy agricultural seasons, restrict their children's school attendance so they can tend to the fields. One respondent, who is a teacher in Ward 33, argued that children become used to routines, be they positive or negative. In absconding school because of going to the fields, the child sees nothing wrong with not going to school, even when there are no agricultural chores to attend to. This

child ultimately drops out of school permanently because she attaches limited or no value to education compared with agricultural activity. The writer connects child labour to a cycle of poverty where uneducated parents do not have money to hire extra labour to tend their fields. They rely on their children's labour, and the children ultimately drop out of school. So the cycle of child labour continues from generation to generation.

4.4.3 Cultural factors

Religion and community cultural ceremonies associated with the Ward 33 community emerged as major factors affecting education. As stated by UNICEF (2004:4), the practices of apostolic religious sectors are a real challenge to girls' education. In Ward 33, the Marange Sect was highlighted for its tendency to marry children early. Figure 4.5.3 shows a survey done by Camfed in which 47 per cent of respondents confirm that marriages are a major cause of children's dropping out of school. The same sect was cited in the survey for their Friday worship services that hinder children from attending school. The Johane Masowe Sect was mentioned for its nightlong prayers, which are attended by all ages. The research revealed that many girls fall prey to sexual abuse during the night prayer sessions. All night prayers result in sleep deprivation, which negatively affects the children's in-class performance because they are tired and unable to concentrate. This dampens children's desire to continue with education, as they perceive themselves as failures.

The Ward 33 community is well known in the district for its *jiti* dances. *Jiti* dances are mostly performed at night when families hold memorial services for deceased

relatives. Children and other young people are not restricted in their enjoyment of these ceremonies, so some drink alcohol. As in the night prayer sessions, children's vulnerability to sexual abuse – especially girls – increases as they seek protection from male counterparts (sometimes older) to travel with to and from the *jiti* ceremonies. In return for 'protecting' the girls, boys expect sexual favours. Many girls become pregnant and are unable to complete schooling. Coercion into early sexual activity also exposes younger girls to sexually transmitted infections (STIs). The girls that drop out become uneducated mothers, whose rights to equality and economic empowerment may never be honoured. The children they bring into the world will be likely to fall into the same trap.

4.4.4 Environmental factors

Mandina (2012:770) states that most rural schools are remote and poorly developed and, consequently, are poor and disadvantaged, lacking basic infrastructure for learning and teaching. The writer extends school factors to the teachers themselves, who are not sufficiently qualified to take up their duties effectively. The low status accorded to the teaching profession plays a contributing role to children's irresponsible behaviour at school. Salaries of teachers are inadequate so that, as mentioned by MOESAC (2004:9), the teachers depend on incentives and hand-outs from the students, which weakens their position in the school. Focus group discussions in which teachers took part noted that the teachers are seriously demotivated and this boredom transfers to the students, who then drop out of school.

This survey is consistent with results in a World Bank study (2005) that confirmed that rural schools had difficulty in attracting qualified teachers, given the housing and sanitary problems, transport and communication problem teachers in rural areas are facing. Coupled with Zimbabwe's political, social and economic situation, the challenge worsens. A representative from Camfed said that when teachers are not trained to be sensitive to the plight of the children they are meant to protect, they can be abusive, knowingly or unknowingly. For example, a teacher singled out the worst dressed child in his class in an attempt to encourage smartness. For this child, her dress may be the best her uncle, who was the breadwinner, bought for her before he died. This is a child who does not see the possibility of getting a new dress soon. Insensitive ridicule may lead to children's quitting school. On the same note of teachers' insensitivity, one school leaver said that she dropped out of school because the class teacher just did not have time to listen to her problems. A girl who dropped out of school in Form 3 said:

I would get to school late almost every day. At home I was being told to do house work and on Mondays and Wednesdays I had to water the garden before I went to school. So my teacher would punish me almost every day. One day I wanted to explain to him my home situation with my guardian and he told me he did not have time to listen to latecomers. I felt bad and after a week I decided to save one master, and I quit school.

One student said that the tough general work at school (for example cleaning the grounds, watering gardens and, in rural areas, moulding bricks) was so tiring. She shared:

It seems our teachers do not appreciate the distances we would have walked just to be at school. We learn for a few hours and work all day, I would rather just work at home where I know at the end of the day I and my siblings will feed on our sweat unlike at school where we just are and not gain from it.

Another factor that emerged in the survey that is also mentioned in the literature review is the need for proper sanitary disposal in schools. A girl in Form 3 who was reluctant to say much about sanitation for girls said that for her it is better not to attend school for the three days she is menstruating. The young girls could not talk openly about menstruation, which is a biological function in women, which demonstrates the stigma menstruation carries. When a girl does not have proper facilities to deal with it, it even becomes a cause of drop-out in schools.

Thirty five percent of survey respondents as shown in figure 4.5 mentioned long distances to school as one of the major factors affecting education. This survey confirmed Mandina's (2012:770) study, which showed that distance to schools is a major challenge in rural areas. Ward 33 has two secondary schools that are situated 15–20 kilometres from the villages that are part of these schools' catchment areas. For instance, it is 16 kilometres from Zambezi Village to Chigango Secondary School. Given the long travel distance to Chigango Secondary School, children from Zambezi opt to travel to Pachanza and Pfunyanguwo Secondary Schools in two wards. Although Mavuradonha Secondary School is just eight kilometres from Zambezi Village, it is a boarding school, to which the community members cannot afford to send their children. As mentioned by the Commission for Rural Communities (CRC) (2012:7), transport networks in rural areas are unreliable. In Ward 33, on weekday

mornings, all buses travel in the opposite direction from schools and the same is true in the evening. The only secondary school that lies on the bus route is Kajokoto Secondary, but children in Zambezi and others at the border of Zambezi and Chigango require US\$2.00 per day for the bus to school. This is difficult to manage in a country the majority of whose population live on less than US\$1.00 per day. UNDP (2012:1) confirms that most states are on track in eradicating poverty, except for sub-Saharan Africa, whose majority still live in extreme poverty. Given these challenges, children have one option, which is walking long distances to and from school. In the morning, a child may travel for three hours to school, that is, from 4 am to 7 pm. One child confided that going to school felt like punishment because she has to walk 25 kilometres to and from school every day, just to be in class, hungry and miserable.

4.5 A COMPARISON OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION BARRIERS

The writer was researching gender parity in education, paying specific attention to primary and basic secondary education (Forms 1–4). It was of interest for the study to compare factors that might affect secondary school girls more than primary school girls, and vice versa. Forty-two per cent of the respondents stated that there is not a significant difference between factors affecting girls' education at secondary and at primary level. The remaining 58 per cent thought that different issues affected each level. Table 4.5 below illustrates the factors that affect primary- and secondary-level students according to the respondents:

Primary schools	Secondary schools
Child labour	Peer pressure

Parents or guardians deceased	Early pregnancy and early marriages
Forced marriages	Family heading
Child abuse	Lack of fees
Lack of school levies and uniforms	Long distances
Leaving school for work	Leaving school for work
	Parents or guardians' death
	Academic
	Sanitary wear

Table 4.5 Factors affecting primary and secondary school students

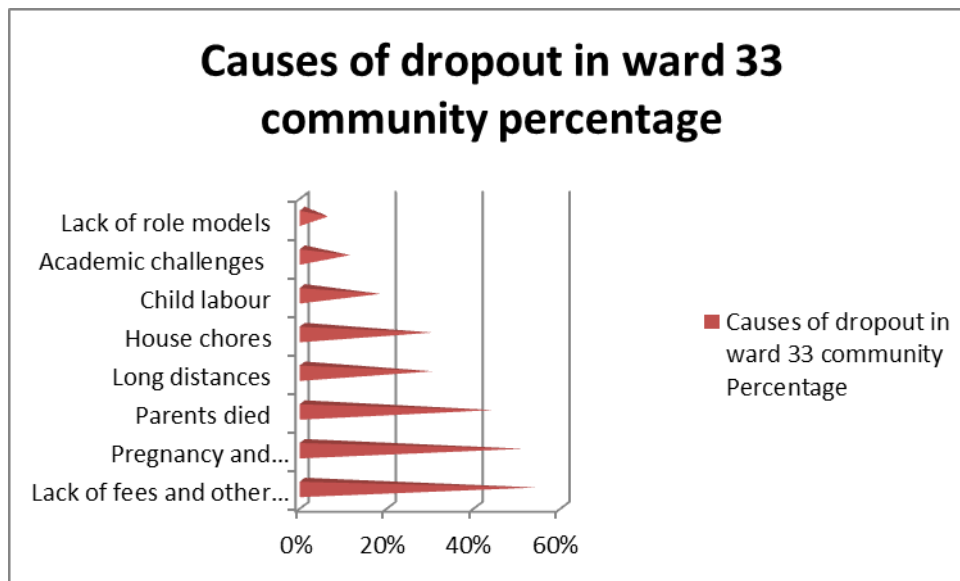
These factors show there is not much difference factors affecting primary and secondary schools. However, some factors have more impact on primary or on secondary students. For example, in secondary schools, hygiene issues affected girls more than in primary school. This point concurs with the observation by MOESAC (2005:3) that puberty increases the cost of education for girls in secondary school because of the need for sanitary wear. On probing the respondents, they did not rule out that sanitary issues also affect girl in primary school. But menstruation and sanitation affect more girls in secondary schools. One of the interviewees, a teacher, explained that girls cannot go to school during their menstrual cycle without underwear, which is regarded as a luxury in poorest families. This affects girls most, since boys can come to school without underwear and behave almost normally whereas girls cannot. These, according to this researcher, are the same children who, according to Van Bueren (1998:219), have a right to dignity.

The study revealed that primary school children are likely to endure abuse for a longer time than secondary school students, but when abuse happens to younger children, it is most likely to make them drop out of school. One teacher revealed that in the event of a major challenge, secondary school students are more likely to confide in a teacher or close friend and obtain help than primary students, who may endure abuse in order to protect their abuser, on whom they may be dependent. The survey showed that neither primary nor secondary students, however, easily report abuse cases, because abusers normally bribe the guardian or parent. In primary school, an abused child may lack the language to explain that he or she is being abused, which leaves him or her in trauma, but the abuser is unscathed, hence leading to drop out.

When a girl child is abused for a long time, she may become delinquent or become a street child, rather than live with her abuser at home. One respondent mentioned that at primary and secondary level, ridicule can lead to delinquency, substance abuse and bullying as copying mechanisms. The writer believes that at both levels, the effects of abuse are long lasting, as they happen when the children are trying to internalise every aspect of their lives. Hence abuse affected primary and secondary students in different forms and with different effects.

Figure 4.5 below depicts the reasons cited by respondents to cause school dropouts in primary and secondary schools in Ward 33.

Figure 4.5 Causes of school dropout in ward 33.



The survey results show that the most pertinent cause of children dropping out of school is lack of fees (54 per cent). Pregnancy and marriage came second with 51 per cent. Like the results of the survey, the baseline by Camfed shown in Figure 4.5.3, which was taken across 24 districts of Zimbabwe, lack of fees, pregnancy and marriage, and guardians and parents' deaths are the major causes of drop-out. Unlike responses from the Ward 33 community, the Camfed survey lists household chores as a major cause of children dropping out of school. Lack of role models appears in both the Camfed and Ward 33 surveys. Though this is regarded the lowest reason for drop-out, it is cause for concern, because it is among the most frequently mentioned causes. Forty-four per cent of respondents in this survey mentioned parents' and guardians' deaths. Thirty per cent referred to long distances to travel, and household chores with which girls are burdened. Other causes such as

child labour, academic challenges and lack of role models scored 18 per cent, 15 per cent and 6 per cent, respectively.

Camfed Zimbabwe (2012:7) did a survey across Zimbabwean rural districts to find factors leading to girls' dropping out of school. Figure 4.5.3 is an extract from the female drop-out survey, showing the highest number of girls dropping out owing to lack of school fees at 59 per cent; 53 per cent citing pregnancy; and 50 per cent family problems.

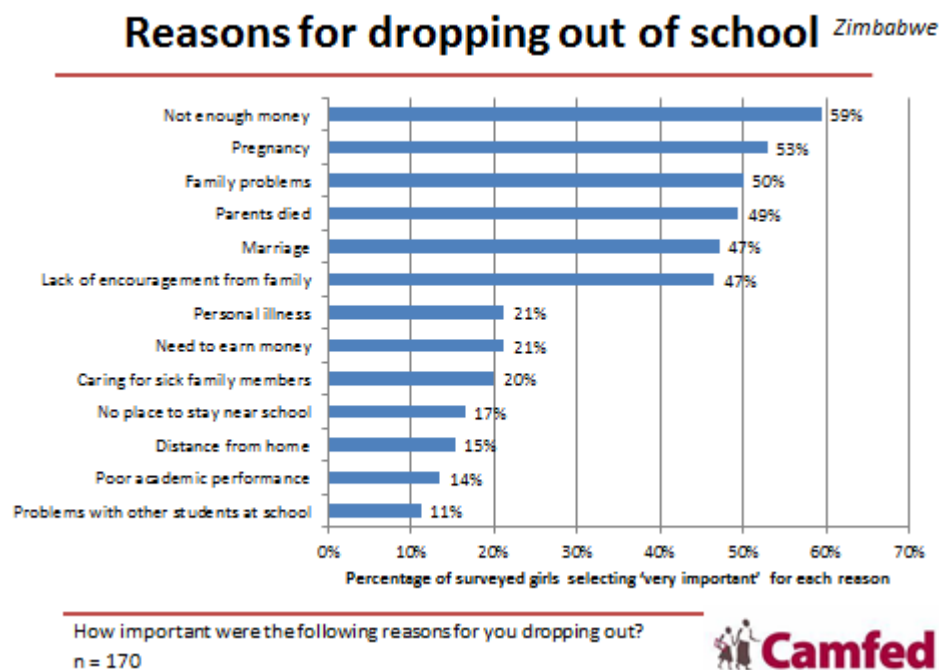


Figure 4.5.3 Camfed Zimbabwe 2012 dropping out survey

4.6 EXTENT TO WHICH BOYS AND GIRLS REMAIN IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL

This survey revealed that in Ward 33, boys had better chances than girls of accessing and completing basic education. The pie chart below summarises respondents' opinions of the extent and chances to which boys and girls remain in school to complete basic education.

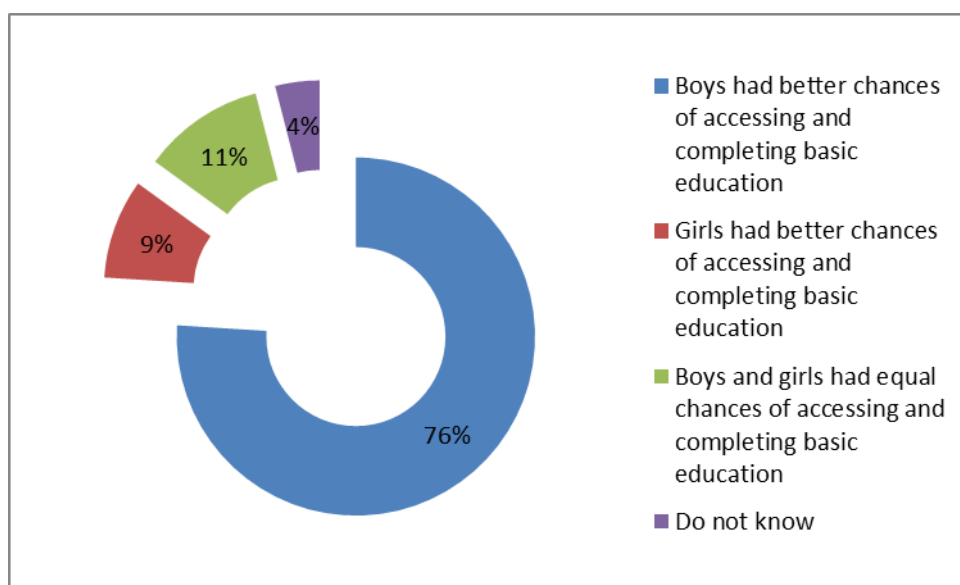


Figure 4.6 Opinions on girls' and boys' chances of remaining in school.

Seventy-six per cent of the respondents confirmed that boys had better chances of accessing and continuing with education than girls. Eleven per cent held the opinion that girls are better off than boys in accessing and completing basic education. Only 9 per cent thought that girls had better chances of accessing and finishing education, while the lowest number of respondents, that is, 4%, were undecided. In conclusion,

most respondents agreed on the existence of gender inequality in school access and completion.

4.7 FACTORS AFFECTING GIRLS IN ACCESSING AND COMPLETING BASIC EDUCATION

Barriers that were particular to girls' education included household chores, especially if the girl lives with an elderly guardian or is the head of the household. One respondent, in a one-on-one interview, noted that when a boy becomes the head of the household, family members tend to work harder to identify an alternative carer for the children. If a girl is the oldest child, she is automatically expected to fill the gap of the deceased parent or guardian. The researcher probed whether boys are not heads of households. The respondent explained that boys sometimes become heads of households, but these are extreme cases, whereas for girls it is common practice.

With issues of pregnancy, again the girls are vulnerable. A girl who becomes pregnant drops out of school, unlike the boy who impregnates her. Ninety per cent of the respondents did not know about the government education re-entry policy. This policy allows a girl who becomes pregnant while in school to go on maternity leave and return to school soon after giving birth. Of the 90 per cent who knew of the policy, 58 per cent thought that it encourages schoolchildren to be sexually active. A girl who becomes sexually active before marriage loses *lobola* value, should she marry later. A virgin has value and respect from the husband and the family. In her research, Bayisenge (2013:5) found that one of the reasons for early marriage in Africa is the desire of parents to protect their girl children from indulging in sexual

activity before they are married. The need to preserve virginity forced girls and their parents to resort to early marriage, leading to early pregnancies, teen motherhood and other developmental challenges. Owing to gender preference in education that favours boys, even if the girl is impregnated by a boy, the families mutually agree to cover the boy, so he can continue in school and the future of his family is protected when he becomes a worker. When the mother is educated, she is likely to spend resources to ensure the welfare of her child. That is, health, nutrition, clothing and education are catered for.

After becoming pregnant, a girl is likely to move away from her village to live where she is unknown to avoid shame. Having to explain her situation to people she knows could also remind her of her failure to continue her education. A boy is not in this predicament, because he does not have a visible pointer to show that he impregnated a girl. The girl remains pregnant and ultimately bears a child that she is expected to take care of as a mother.

4.8 ROLE OF CAMFED IN GIRLS' EDUCATION, ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT AND GENDER EQUALITY

A total of 63.6 per cent of respondents mentioned Camfed in their responses to the organisations they know about that are working with the Ward 33 community to empower women. Every interviewee knew of Camfed's existence in the ward. What remained not clear to the other interviewees are the specific activities that are being undertaken by Camfed. The writer categorised respondents' opinions on the impact

Camfed is making on the families and communities as empowering, enlightening and lessening the burden. Explanations of these categories are given in detail below.

Empowering: Camfed's intervention is empowering, in that the selection process of beneficiaries is community owned in that the most vulnerable children are chosen by community-based selection committees. Before a child is taken on board for support, verification by the district committee takes place at random. They visit the homes of the selected sample and make sure the selection was done authentically. One respondent said: 'We as the community, we are the Camfed. When we cheat Camfed during our selection of beneficiaries we cheat ourselves. Camfed empowered us so we do not want to deceive them.'

Enlightening: 'Camfed enlightened us. Now we know how to respect our girl children, our wives and the whole family.' It emerged in the interviews that because Camfed gave first preference to girls, who had been side-lined for centuries, this is a huge message to enlighten the community on education as a right and not a privilege.

Camfed provides continuous support, unlike other service providers. If a child is enrolled, that child is assured that he or she will complete basic education. The respondents' responses revealed that doubt over having the next term's fees contributes to children dropping out. A boy in Form 2 said: 'I am in school because I want to finish Form 4 and proceed with education. If my situation is one that does not allow me to drop out at some point before Form 4, then what is the purpose of education?' The role of civil society thus emerges as ensuring the poor access services that are due to them as a right, regardless of their poverty.

4.8.1 Mother support groups

About 80 per cent of respondents thought that the programme run by mother support groups (MSGs) was sustainable, and more children would be sent to school by their mothers, even beyond the life of the organisation. Camfed representatives who were interviewed explained that the programme in which Camfed trains and assists rural women in starting a business began as a way of showing that when a family educates a woman, everything in that family changes. UNFPA (2011:3) views women empowerment as identifying and redressing power imbalances and giving women more autonomy to manage their own lives. This is a human right, which needs to be upheld. UNFPA's definition acknowledges the existence of power imbalances and the need to give women the assets and skills they require to be in charge of their own lives. For women to attain their full human rights, control and skills, they need economic empowerment, which will act as a means to gender equality. On the other hand, education would have acted as a means to get this process done

An MSG member said in a one-on-one interview:

Now I have a voice in my house. When we started the business of selling vegetables as a group of women trained by Camfed, not even us as group members knew that this would get us this far. It has never happened in this community that rural women could be targeted for partnering with an NGO. Now, we have supported over 60 children this year alone in our local primary

school with pens, exercise books and uniforms depending on exactly what the child wants.

What the woman terms 'a voice in the house' is referred to as gender equality in this study. Women talked about gender equality in softer terms such as 'Now I have a voice.' 'I am consulted when decisions affecting the family are being done.' 'I am also now appreciated by my husband and his relatives.' 'Now my children are secure even when their father is not there.' 'My being a mother support group member assisted the family to move on even after the death of my husband who was the bread winner.' These statements attest to economic empowerment and the sense of security and rights ownership a woman obtains after joining an MSG.

Being breadwinners and individuals who contribute to the family's livelihood opens avenues to young women to make decisions in the home and family. This is unlikely in a patriarchal society in which some men refer to themselves as the law, as stated by one respondent during the research. Young women's opportunities to make informed critical decisions in life, for example on whom they can marry and when, are enhanced when the young woman is educated. Through empowerment brought about by education, young rural women are capacitated to give back to their communities. In most cases they have economic emancipation which makes it possible for them to send their siblings to school.

Camfed's bursaries have increased households' capacity to educate their children. One respondent commented that she could see the future of her children as brighter now that Camfed was paying their fees. As stated by Nath (2011:8), a child's

opportunity to go to school translates into employment opportunities, his or her production capacity is better, and the possibility that he or she will marry early is reduced. When girls marry late, they are more likely to have matured and to be able to send their own children to school and the 'virtuous cycle' of an empowered generation continues.

Respondents confirmed that Camfed's intervention is vital to lessening the families' burdens as the children have all the school essentials. One mother stated in an interview that she could not make the boy go to school without exercise books and pens when his sister in the Camfed programme has eight counter books and exercise books. This mother stated that when the Camfed stationery arrives, she looks into the gap in all her other children, when she sells her tomatoes and vegetables she then replaces the books Camfed would have bought. This allows all the children to be in school and with the materials they require to stay there. Being able to stay in school means that they are able to complete their primary and secondary education and hence increase their economic empowerment prospects, to send their own children to school and ensure gender equality in the home, school and community.

4.8.2 Safety Net Fund

In the Safety Net Fund, Camfed provides funds to primary and secondary schools. A school committee, comprising 50 per cent men and 50 per cent women, facilitates a community consultative meeting at which parents, teachers and students identify

major challenges that directly affect children's education in the school system. The committee then use the grants from Camfed to meet these needs, so students on the verge of dropping out of school can remain in the system. Further enquiry revealed that the Safety Net Fund can buy revision textbooks and teachers' stationery, identify children (boys and girls) who are on the verge of dropping out of school, and supply needy children with school essentials at that particular time, which keeps them in school, because families and other well-wishers look for resources to take the child up in the long run. The Safety Net Fund, by ensuring 50 per cent men and women representation, caters for a huge gender equality gap, which would not otherwise be met if the organisation did not enforce such representation policies in the decision-making bodies.

4.9 AREAS OF IMPROVEMENT FOR CAMFED

One of the questions in the interviews was whether assistance to the Ward 33 community was enough to empower women and ensure gender equality or was there something else the participants wanted to see Camfed doing in their ward. Several suggestions and sentiments came about which the researcher discusses below:

Inadequacy of support. Seventy-four per cent of the interviewees shared their wish to see Camfed working with more than schools. They acknowledged the organisation's work with MSGs, but they wanted it to do more with communities so that knowledge could spread. One respondent said that the money Camfed gives to mothers is too little and hence difficult to use.

Project follow up: The need for constant follow-up came up during the enquiries. Respondents argued that Camfed does follow up, especially on school interventions. The MSGs and other community trainings are not given attention as much as schools initiatives. One respondent said:

We can go for training, we come back after training and implement what we would have been taught anticipating someone will just come to see and assist us move forward, you just don't see anyone.

Another respondent on the same issue said that when Camfed learned from the stakeholders that things were not working, they should follow up, not just keep quiet.

The need to increase reach: Camfed should increase its reach, both in terms of the number of children being assisted and the number of MSGs given bigger grants.

4.10 AREAS OF IMPROVEMENT FOR THE MINISTRY OF WOMEN AFFAIRS, GENDER AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Visibility: Respondents stated that the Ministry of Women Affairs, Gender and Community Development (MOWAGCD) must work with the women on the ground and not at national level only. One respondent said: 'Yes I have heard about MOWAGCD on radio. I haven't seen them here.' This respondent could have not participated in activities organised by MOWAGCD. Because some members of the community say that they have not seen MOWAGCD in their areas, this tells of the ministry's need to increase its activity base, visibility and reach

Need to take charge of activities: Respondents referred to MOWAGCD's tendency to abrogate responsibility to civil society organisations. In a one-on-one interview, one respondent said: 'MOWAGCD is the actual ministry to deal with gender equality and women empowerment issues. They should take charge and not rely solely on civil society organisations.' It emerged that MOWAGCD, when they get the opportunity to be in the community, makes promises that they never fulfil.

Provision of loans: The need for MOWAGCD to provide loans was cited by 80 per cent of the respondents. The respondents mentioned that equality and economic empowerment are possible when immediate needs such as food, shelter and healthcare are met, hence the necessity for loans so they can engage in income-generating projects.

4.11 AREAS OF IMPROVEMENT FOR THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, ARTS, SPORT AND CULTURE

Ward 33 community raised a number of areas in which the Ministry of Education, Arts, Sport and Culture (MOESAC) must improve if the school system is to pull children from the community to the school.

The need to have qualified teachers in rural areas: One respondent said that for the past five years at their school, the only qualified person was the school head. This has greatly affected even the pass rate of the school, because at times temporary teachers are deployed late, since their places have to be confirmed at the district

offices before they start duty. Delay in confirmation means teachers may arrive at schools more than two weeks after they open. Hence children are not able to catch up with the syllabus. Luring qualified teachers, on the other hand, entails building houses and toilets and electrifying the schools, as they shun rural areas because of the lack of better amenities.

School personnel need to have skills that allow them to deal sensitively with children. Some children dropped out owing to teachers calling them names or holding them up as examples of failure.

Need for adequately resourced schools: One teacher during an interview commented that rural schools are the worst resourced. The teachers, however, acknowledged recent books that UNICEF had provided, but stated that a generation of students has already been disadvantaged.

Manual work in rural schools: Respondents, especially school-leavers, cited the need for schools to be sensitive about giving children chores to do at school. Some students walk long distances, hungry. On arrival at school late, they are punished. In the afternoon, the same students are expected to join the others for general work.

4.12 RESPONDENTS' GENERAL AWARENESS AND UNDERSTANDING OF GENDER EQUALITY

In the Chigango and Zambezi communities, men and women agreed that gender equality is about 50/50 in all areas of life. The areas referred to most often included

education, roles and responsibilities at home. Women talked about the responsibilities in the community that they felt are skewed in favour of men. Decision making in the home and community was cited as a critical area in which gender equality is essential. In a focus group discussion, a man said that 'as the man, he was the law in his household'. Such comments and sentiments emerged mostly in focus group discussions with men, where they unanimously agreed that they cannot be overruled by their wives in the name of gender equality. The writer noted that patriarchy is still strong in Ward 33.

But some progress towards gender equality is being witnessed in the ward. Having debated in focus group discussions about whom the family would send to school, the boy or the girl, if resources did not allow both, 60 per cent of the group members agreed that either the boy or the girl should be given the opportunity, so long as he or she was the brighter one. Some 40 per cent, which comprised mostly men, reserved the right to education for the boy, whom they associated with the family lineage and not the girl, who would marry and leave the family.

A separate analysis of the response by the leaders showed different thinking from that of the general populace. Leaders defined gender equality in terms of a set of agreed targets and goals. One community leader stated in a one-on-one interview: 'There was a mistake somewhere that for ages women have been taken as second-class citizens; we should wake up and set things right.'

It was noted that gender equality is not an easy topic for men. Women found it easy to talk about gender equality as, according to the writer, they felt innocent and hence

ready for parity with the men in their lives. This inequality manifests itself in community leadership where women represent only 11 per cent, as indicated by the leaders that were interviewed.

Women seem more knowledgeable about gender equality issues than most men. The women raised matters of equal opportunities, while the men talked about imbalance and equity concerns between men and women, which they thought should not be upheld. The researcher felt that some of their responses were out of context since they are in a rural area. The subjects of equal job and wage opportunities they talked about does not necessarily affect them directly as rural citizens. However, it was clear in their responses that equal opportunities in the workplace be it in industries or in their rural day-to-day tasks, speak much about how gender equality and women empowerment is perceived.

To answer the question on what they understood by gender equality, men were quick to defend their side. One respondent said: 'It is not my responsibility to cook or to wash napkins.' Women and men agreed that in family labour, duties must be segregated, so that the women can do the lighter tasks, while the men do the harder ones. What did not come out is how this division of labour would make time for women or enhance their position in the home and community, if it did. According to the elderly and younger men, leadership in the home should never be 50/50, as this is a possible source of conflict. Women, that is, 20–34 years and 35–60 years, like men, agreed that leadership in the home is a male domain and as women they cannot infringe on that area. There must be a leader in any institution, even the home. That is why the man is expected to lead the family.

There was consensus from male and female participants of all ages that men’s leadership in the home should not be questioned. The assumption may have been that gender equality questions the male position in the household and hence they were quick to address that. This response showed the strongly rooted cultural understanding of the man being the head of the household. Asking about their understanding of gender equality was regarded as questioning the status quo and hence resisted.

4.13 RESPONDENTS’ AWARENESS AND UNDERSTANDING OF WOMEN
ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

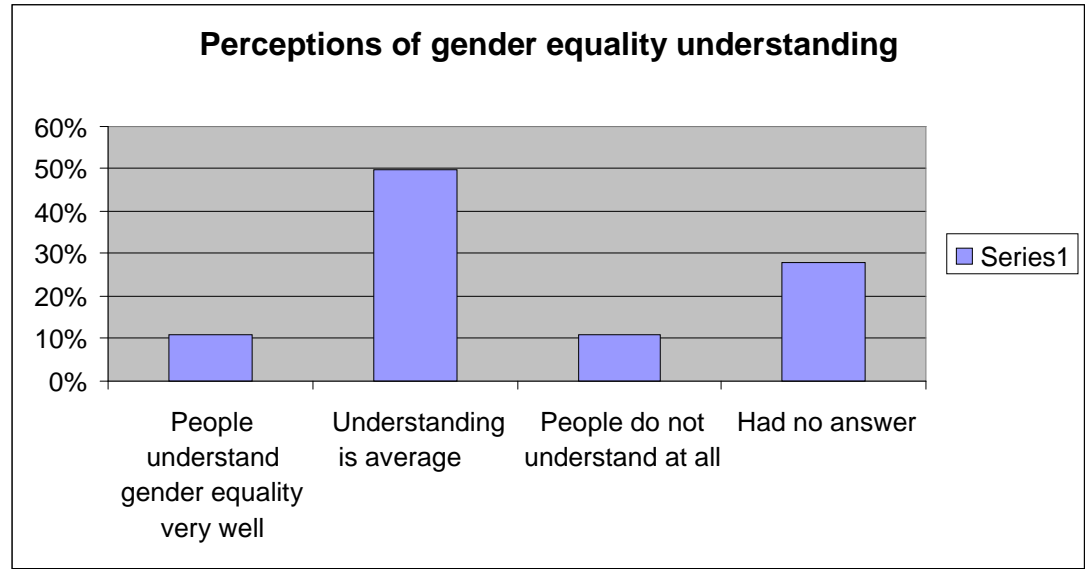


Figure 4.7: Understanding of gender equality

Of the respondents who rated understanding of economic empowerment as average, the general explanation is that people are talking about income generation. They know about the concept, but their practical involvement in making it fully happen is limited.

The survey shows that economic empowerment is regarded as men and women doing the same jobs, women engaging in self-help projects, women being free to sell their farm produce, women being educated enough to attain men's positions, and women having ownership rights over resources. This finding shows how education is central to women's attainment of gender equality and empowerment. It conforms to that of Nai (2003:6), who upholds women's ability to do self-help projects as an indication of empowerment. When women are educated, they develop the financial and numeracy skills they require to grow their businesses, attain gender equality in their families, and ultimately continue to send their children to school.

The survey revealed that the Ward 33 community regard gender equality as men and women sitting on the same forums and making decisions together. Female respondents stated that education assisted them in having their voices heard and regarded when making decisions that affect the home. Women would be happy to be part of the village heads and chiefs' courts that finalise decisions to do with women. A woman respondent in one of the villages said that at times a man passes an unfair judgement over an issue that affects women. In her own words, 'The men do not understand women's feelings because they....will never be women, hence the need to give us the opportunity to express ourselves on issues that affect us as women.'

4.14 OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN EMPOWERMENT AND GENDER EQUALITY

The researcher asked whether opportunities for empowerment and gender equality existed in Ward 33. Varied responses emerged. An average number thought opportunities for empowerment are available since women can now buy their own wealth in the form of cattle. This finding, however, still showed a high level of men's control over whose assets are kept where. In one focus group discussion, one woman said:

Where I am married they tell me to take my cattle to my brothers' homestead, in my brother's homestead they do not allow me to have a say over my cattle once I take them there. Now I do not know exactly where I belong. I am not sure when I will use my cattle manure to put in my garden. When will I use the milk to feed my children?

This statement shows that the existence of equality and empowerment opportunities is dependent on what the men in the household have to say. The women were quick to point out that if only they were educated, their status could be better. The research thus revealed that education had some reinforcement power for women to enjoy their wealth, command respect and make decisions in their homes and communities.

Women empowerment and gender equality are still associated with stereotypes. Male respondents in particular did not think women should be given empowerment and equality opportunities. For them, a woman ceases to be a wife the moment she obtains empowerment and equality. Such a mindset speaks to the closed-mindedness that comes from not obtaining enlightenment from education. Some

respondents acknowledged that opportunities for women are affected by the traditional norm that boys, unlike girls, advance the clan's name and hence any chance for education, resources and improvement should be channelled to boys, and not boys who are perceived to only enrich their husband's family when they get married.

4.15 WARD 33 PERSPECTIVE ON VALUABLE RESOURCES

Figure 4.8 shows the range of items that Ward 33 respondents consider important and valuable.

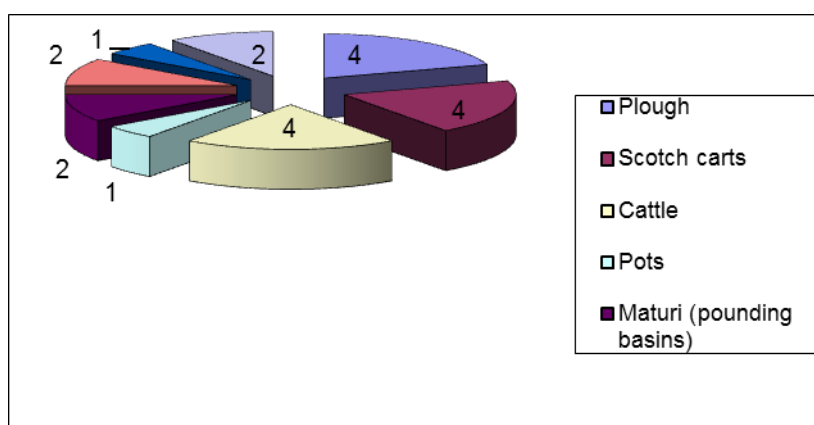


Figure 4.8: Assets considered valuable in the home

Cattle, ploughs and scotch carts were listed as their three greatest assets, as is shown on figure 4.8 above. This tells a lot about what the people value, their means of production and where they obtain their livelihoods. Men are in control of the means of production since they are the heads of the households and hence own farming equipment.

Ironically, in focus group discussions, men referred to farming equipment and land as resources women should own in order to be called economically empowered. The researcher probed whether men were ready to see equality in who owns land and farming equipment in the home. According to the men, women are free to own land and large property only when the husband dies or the woman can take care of the children. Women themselves did not bring out this idea. Women in their responses demonstrated passion for acquiring mental riches such as education. Women also valued the need to have educated children. From the women's point of view, education is a major contributing factor to their empowerment. Men's responses show that women empowerment should be to the advantage of the children and not the women themselves. Empowerment is still far from being attained in rural areas.

Respondents agreed unanimously that men are more empowered than women. Their reasons did not specify patriarchy or gender inequalities in society. Respondents (especially men) had the notion that women are lazy and afraid to take up positions of power. Hence they remain poor. Early marriages emerged as another reason that women were poorer than men in general. Issues of marriage and divorce leave women with no property and thus they are still poor, especially when they divorce. Other respondents argued that women marry men who have already acquired property and hence they still do not have a say in property matters and are regarded as poor. The researcher attributes the reasons that men are more economically empowered than women to lack of education. Those who labelled women lazy may have counted only the share of work for which women are paid and ignored the unpaid roles of women in the home.

4.16 CONCLUSION

Chapter 4 has attempted to ascertain factors affecting girls' access to, and retention and completion of primary and secondary education. The chapter brought out the links between education, economic empowerment and gender equality from the stakeholders' perspective. The efforts being made by government, through MOWAGCD and MOESAC, and civil society, represented by Camfed, have been shared from the respondents' perspectives. The areas that require redress by the stakeholders have also been revealed. Chapter 4 has revealed the need to see issues of girls' education, gender equality and empowerment as key human rights that affect more than individuals, but also the nation and international community at large. Chapter 5 examines the conclusions drawn in each section, extracts the main conclusions and makes recommendations.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Inequalities and disempowerment persist in impoverished families and communities. The situation is worse for uneducated girls and women. In most cases they do not have access to or complete primary and secondary education, which provides the basic skills for survival. With education, girls' chances of standing as independent beings are enhanced, thereby enlarging opportunities for their own children to be educated. In investigating the extent to which government and civil society have implemented MDG 3, this research explored girls' access to, retention and completion of primary and secondary school and how education affects economic empowerment and gender equality in adulthood. Chapter 5 gives a summary of the whole study, including major findings from the survey, the literature review, a discussion of these findings, theoretical and policy implications of the study, recommendations for future action and practice in rural communities by stakeholders, and recommendations for further study.

5.2 MAJOR FINDINGS

Government, civil society and the community itself are critical stakeholders that should complement one another's efforts if the battle against gender inequality and disempowerment of women is to be won. Member states who signed the Millennium

Declarations are exerting a great deal of effort to ensure that the MDGs remain a critical yardstick for measuring progress of strategies to alleviate poverty around the world. With women forming the majority of the world's population (two thirds), the researcher saw it relevant to investigate women's empowerment and gender equality.

The realities facing the rural masses are missing from or not represented in surveys and publications that come out in the public arena. Rural communities are lumped into the statistics from urban areas, which in most cases makes it difficult for assisting agencies to redress rural challenges objectively.

Major factors affecting girls' primary and secondary education access, retention and completion rates in Ward 33 that were elicited include the following:

Cost of education: This is explained in detail in section 4.4.2. Cost of education becomes more significant as the child ascends the ladder of education. Secondary students are most affected by cost. Girls are uniquely affected financially as sanitary wear adds to the cost of education.

Lack of parental supervision and guidance: Children are left to care for themselves because parents have succumbed to HIV/AIDS or have migrated to other countries in search of better livelihoods (section 4.4.1). Some parents may be with the children, but because the parents they are not educated, the children still have no supervision or motivation for education.

Economic marginality and child labour: Section 4.4.2 establishes that Ward 33 is a peasant farmer community. Children, especially in child-headed and guardian-controlled households, are made to work in the fields before they go to school and when they return. The child who walks a long distance to school may have to miss school on occasion because of tiredness. Continual fatigue and truancy lead children to drop out of school.

HIV/AIDS: Children may be infected with HIV/AIDS or affected by the disease. Besides remaining as child-headed families (above), infected students run the risk of being stigmatised at school. Infected teachers' participation in teaching is compromised and this affects the students.

Religious and cultural beliefs that affect children: Section 4.4.3 explains how girls risk being impregnated at night fellowships of certain religious sects. Apostolic sects force young girls to marry older polygamous men. In Ward 33, ceremonial rituals take place at night. This affects schoolgirls who lack sleep and lose concentration at school. Young girls may be involved in sexual activities and ultimately cannot continue with education as they run into early marriages.

Environmental and personal factors: Long distances to school (section 4.4.1) and lack of academic talent may lead to girls dropping out of school. Children may envy colleagues who dropped out and do not face the same constraints. A child who is labelled or labels him- or herself a failure is likely to drop out of school.

Insensitive teachers: Teachers who call children names or refer insensitively to the children's home situations (section 4.4.4) facilitate the children's decision to leave school.

5.3 EDUCATION AND ITS INFLUENCE ON GIRLS' ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT AND GENDER EQUALITY

Gender equality and women empowerment directly and indirectly affect girls' access to, and retention and completion of secondary education. In turn, this affects women's economic empowerment and gender equality in the household and community in their adult lives.

There is a direct link between education, economic empowerment and gender equality. A girl who is empowered through education is likely to be economically empowered, given the enlightenment that education brings. An educated girl is less likely to marry early, to have children early and to be widowed early owing to HIV/AIDS. Children born and reared by an educated girl are likely to be empowered through access to education, and in most cases economically empowered.

Girls in rural areas still face multiple challenges in accessing and completing primary and secondary education. In most cases, the challenges girls face – for example early marriages, long distances to school, the burden of child-headed families, and lack of money for school fees – all link to poverty. Hence, education, empowerment and gender equality affect one another.

Elderly women linked their inability to access leadership positions to lack of education. They noted that owing to lack of education, communities cannot entrust them with authority. They remain poor and the subjects of oppression from their male counterparts and educated community members. Most women lamented that they lack capital to start businesses. As the survey brought out, accessing capital would not be so much of a challenge if they were educated. They would probably be generating income and be respected in their households and communities. Lack of education results in economic disempowerment and gender inequality that may be inherited by their children and children's children.

5.4. THE ROLE PLAYED BY CAMFED AND GOVERNMENT IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GIRL CHILD.

Being key players in the development of the girl child in ward 33, below are the deduced roles Camfed and government should play.

- Providing financial support through bursaries and safety net funds
- Advocating for gender equality and empowerment of women when they prioritise girls in bursaries and MSGs in starting income-generating projects.
- Linking communities with the national and global community through uplifting women's voice in forums. Otherwise women would not be able to obtain representation.
- Removing the cultural stigma that women are incapable of being independent by advocating for 50/50 representation in selection committees and project management committees at rural level.

- Training young women school leavers who together form the Camfed Association (Cama). Cama members are trained on leadership, entrepreneurship and giving back to their communities hence work with MSGs and district officials. Camfed strengthens and empowers communities to make sound decisions within their various categories.
- Government provides an environment conducive to civil society organisations to operate. Government puts in place national plans from which civil society organisations draw their mandates and to a limited extent, government provides financial support through programmes such as the Basic Educational Assistance Module (BEAM), executed through MOESAC, and Internal Servings and Lending (ISAL), implemented through MOWAGCD. The survey revealed that MOWAGCD in particular has made more promises than actual assistance to the Ward 33 community.
- Government through specialist trainers within its departments provides civil society organisations with trainers and expertise in projects that civil society and communities may want to run.

5.5 DISCUSSION

Girls drop out of school because the environment at home, in the community and at school is not conducive to motivating their schooling. Intrinsic factors such as not being academically talented contribute to children not being able to access and complete their primary and secondary education. This results in huge numbers of

uneducated women who remain in the vicious cycle of poverty and suffer the consequences of disempowerment and gender inequalities.

Similar to the 2012 Camfed dropout survey in Figure 4.5.3 above, this study reveals that financial constraints are a major cause for children dropping out. Pregnancy and marriage constitute the second largest factor, as revealed in the Camfed survey. However, unlike the Camfed survey results, this study shows that parents' death is a key factor in influencing girls to drop out of school, as it comes third on the list with 44 per cent. The third item on Camfed's list is referred to as 'family problems'. But 'family problems' is a vague term, as it does not identify the problems, although it includes the deaths of parents and guardians. This study's findings on the impact of parental mortality confirm the 2012 Camfed dropout survey results.

Parents and teachers are powerful players in the gender game. The European Commission (EC) (2009:38) argues that parents and teachers reinforce gender stereotypical expectations. A number of studies have shown that parents and teachers' gender-stereotyped behaviour and expectations can undermine girls' confidence in their mathematical abilities. The writer noted from the survey that the attitude of teachers and parents towards girls' education is important in attendance, retention and completion of education for the girls. Parents, especially when they are not educated, are not in a position to encourage their children to continue with education. Hence owing to lack of emotional support, their children ultimately drop out of school. In an article by the EC (2009:38) the notion is posited that teachers may carry into the school system the cultural mores and values that are dominant

outside it, thereby replicating gendered assumptions of society at large within the education system.

The survey did not bring out strongly the impact of peer pressure, especially when children join secondary education. Kessel (2005:319) found that peers tend to reinforce stereotypical behaviour and punish non-conformist behaviour. The survey respondents implied peer pressure. When girls compare their lifestyles with their peers who married or dropped out of school, they may think education is punitive. Girls complained about onerous household chores, distance to school and agricultural work. The survey, however, was not as explicit as the literature review on the extent to which peer pressure affects girls' education.

Traditional leaders need to make sure that harmful cultural and traditional norms are shunned and punitive measures are put in place to protect girls and women from falling prey to disempowerment and inequalities whose roots emanate from the beliefs people have been socialised to accept and have internalised. Communities have to work collectively to address threats brought about by the long distances children walk to school. School-going children do not have motivation as they consider that their age mates who would have dropped out of school are lucky not to be enduring the hardships faced by those going to school. Analysed by age, the perceptions of men and women regarding gender equality and empowerment of women are not significantly different. Gender-aggregated data showed a difference in perception. The researcher assumed that the different age groups would have different opinions. Because of this discrepancy between initial assumptions and results, the researcher realised that socialisation, and the existence of and exposure

to role models in a given context determine the mindsets of people who grow up in an area. Although the younger generation had acquired a bit more education than the older ones, the norm that women are meant for marriage and should not own assets or make decisions emerged in most of the interview responses. Focus group discussions with 20–30-year-old women were more animated, as these younger women opened up over the way their husbands treated them unequally in the household. They knew what they wanted, but did not see equality and empowerment happening soon enough. For this reason, organisations and ministries working on gender equality and empowerment issues should strategically integrate men so that they are sensitised and do not see interventions by women as a threat to their authority, but as a process to ensure women, and indeed all people, enjoy their full human rights. Study results agree with Lincoln et al (2002:274) in section 2.2.1 who notes that men have gained a lot of power through patriarchy over the years. This research found through the discussions with men that some consider themselves ‘the law’ in their homes. Discussions with women revealed self-pity over just being women. One woman asked: ‘What on earth can I do as a woman?’ a statement that shows an entrenched norm of inequality and disempowerment that is not easy to unlearn. Changing this norm requires integration of equality and empowerment practices in all the activities and practices in the ward. For example, religious leaders should be held accountable, as much as parents, over children attending night-time church services during the school week. Hosts of night and daytime traditional ceremonies at which minors drink alcohol should also be held liable, so that the community members at individual level take responsibility for their own actions and for the safety of school-age girls.

Reeves and Baden (2008:2) (section 2.2.2) define gender equality as access to resources and opportunities for both boys and girls. This is a straightforward definition that aligns with the writer's worldview. However, the definition leaves hanging the realities between rural boys and girls. It does not take into account girls' practical needs, making it difficult to implement it. For instance, this survey explained that boys and girls have the liberty to enrol in primary and secondary schools in the same way. Things differ when it comes to girls and boys sustaining that opportunity to remain in and complete primary and secondary education. Girls are found to face more challenges than boys, thereby minimising their chances of enjoying the opportunity their male counterparts continue to enjoy. Hence, organisations and ministries are encouraged to deal with the root problems that result in girls not attending school. Trying to address girls' need to remain in school may not be fruitful when the issues that make them drop out are not dealt with, such as early marriage; being blocked in by numerous household chores; long distances to school; potential abuse on the way to school, at school and at home; lack of adequate financial assistance; and insensitivity from the teachers who are supposed to protect them.

The researcher explored the rights-based framework (section 2.5.1) in which education, empowerment and equality are explained as basic rights to which girls and women are entitled. Having looked at the issues at stake through the human rights lens, the writer acknowledges how much opportunity for success governments, civil society and communities will gain when they approach education, empowerment and equality as human rights. Current results from the survey reveal that the government of Zimbabwe and civil society still have a long way to go in order to

address the issues affecting women and girls. There is need for strong political will within the country and internationally for MDG 3 to be attained and, furthermore, to have a noticeable effect on rural women and girls.

The quality of education is critical. However, the nation must start to work on the numbers of girls who attain this education. At the stage that most girls are in school, then quality can be looked into.

5.6 OVERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

Below are the overall recommendations that were deduced from the study findings:

- The Ward 33 community must prioritise women empowerment agendas and participate actively in the process of women's empowerment and gender equality. The community must embrace gender equality and women's empowerment as avenues for the whole community's advancement and development.
- Ward 33 must value girls' and women's education, encouraging community-grown ideas on how best to deal with factors affecting girls' education. External assistance from government and/or civil society should then target those areas that communities cannot deal with within their own means.
- Community members, especially men, should support women if they suggest initiatives that lead to gender equality and economic empowerment, as this will result in sustainable development in the ward.
- Men should participate in initiatives that aim to empower women. This will eradicate suspicion and discomfort in men so they can free their wives to participate in development work.

- There is need for greater accountability on the part of assisting agencies to Ward 33 community on interventions under way.
- People in Ward 33 should unite and work closely with local leaders to channel grievances to civil society and government structures in a timely manner. The community members should be bold enough to challenge some of the traditionally accepted customs so they can modernise in line with upholding women and girls' rights. There is need for the community to hold open dialogue, where possible, so that men and women can have platforms to share their views and concerns on gender equality, economic empowerment of women and other pertinent issues that may be affecting them and their communities' development.
- Lack of education is one of the strongest barriers to gender equality and economic empowerment of women. The recommendation is that the community should organise itself and start adult literacy classes, and community learning centres so that the impact of lack of education can be minimised.
- Blind surveys by civil society organisations should be done before interventions, so that they can be as relevant as possible to the target community.
- During the implementation of interventions, assisting agencies should keep on consulting the people within the community and their leadership to obtain feedback and advice in time to change implementation strategies as needed.
- Civil society and government should do awareness-raising campaigns before, during and after interventions so that the people fully understand the objectives of an intervention understand its progress and obtain feedback on its success.

- Government, through the feminisation programme, should have a rural strategy on placing women in leadership roles to ensure that young women in the rural areas have role models in their localities.
- The Government of Zimbabwe and civil society must intensify gender equality and women empowerment programmes in Ward 33 of Mt Darwin if meaningful progress is to be recorded by 2015.
- Overall, since these findings are being investigated in 2013, that is, two years before the 2015 deadline for achievement of the MDGs, more years up to 2020–2025 should be set as new targets to allow integration of rural women fully in development.
- There is need for women to have access to capital without being asked for large collateral. Organisations and government are encouraged to donate starting capital in the form of money and machinery, so that women can start viable businesses. Government should provide women with financial assistance to start savings clubs.
- Non-governmental organisations should give people adequate assistance they have promised and on time. The assistance should be followed up with appropriate training and information so that communities do not develop a dependency syndrome on the assisting agencies, but can sustainably grow their capacities to continue to empower themselves.

5.7 RECOMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This research being of limited scope, it did not explore all the issues that emerged. The following issues need further enquiry:

- With rural areas being under the governance of traditional leaders, it is important in future to examine existing feminine and masculine roles that promote gender equality and economic empowerment of women and to see how these practices can ensure gender sensitivity and human rights awareness in order to uphold equality and empowerment of women in this ward.
- It is important to understand how gender equality and economic empowerment of women are taken on board in female-headed households. Further enquiry would involve understanding the differences in empowerment or disempowerment between female-headed households and male-headed households in order to understand the dynamics and relevant interventions in the different scenarios.

5.8 CONCLUSION

Chapter 5 outlined major findings from the research. These included the major factors affecting girls' education from the ward 33 perspective. What was deduced on the influence of education on empowerment and gender equality was also discussed. The chapter allowed the role played by Camfed and government in the development of the girl child to be discussed as informed by the research findings. Recommendations for further research marked the end of chapter 5 before its conclusion.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY OF THE DISSERTATION AND FURTHER RECOMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This study was set out to investigate the extent to which the government of Zimbabwe and civil society have implemented gender equality and empowerment of women in ward 33 of Mt Darwin. Specific focus was on girls' education. The study also sought to ascertain factors affecting girls' primary and secondary education access, retention and completion in the ward. The extent to which girls' access and completion of primary and secondary education affect their economic, empowerment and equality wellbeing was also key to understand in this study. This writer was keen to determine the role Camfed and government play to ensure overall development of the girl child in ward 33.

Chapter 6 reviews and summarises the research and spells the main research methods used. It identifies the implications in the study. A snapshot of the process used to analysing data and documenting findings will also be given. This writer will take chapter 6 as the opportunity to highlight what she did not know that she now knows as a result of having embarked on this research. Personal value of the research experience, insights, knowledge and inspiration drawn from this particular research will be shared. Finally, further recommendations will be given.

6.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT AND METHODOLOGY USED.

Mainstream literature broadly refers to women as a homogeneous group that faces insurmountable challenges in all aspects of life. This paper advocates for the need to give particular attention to rural girls and women when it comes to the implementation of MDG 3. The analysis of the extent to which MDG 3 has been achieved in rural areas makes the research paper more targeted thereby advocating for cluster specific analysis and solutions to challenges that women face in order to provide realistic recommendations to the challenges that girls and women face in their pursuit of an education, equality and empowerment.

6.3 INSIGHTS, KNOWLEDGE AND INSPIRATION DRAWN FROM THE RESEARCH

1. The researcher now understands more the resilience rural women have given the unequal economic, education and equality conditions they operate in when compared to their male counterparts.
2. The researcher now has an enhanced insight into the work done by government and Camfed in ward 33 of Mt Darwin.
3. Rural women have multiple challenges ranging from economic, cultural, leadership and educational disempowerment which requires a comprehensive package of support.
4. It was fascinating to see how boys and girls still look upto an opportunity to be educated as their number one strategy to take them out of poverty. This is evidenced by the distances they travel to and from school and the risk they take

just to be at their 17 kilometres away nearest school, the unqualified teachers within those schools and the lack associated with their being in school.

5. The researcher was inspired by the local leadership interface with both government and civil society.

6.4 FURTHER RECOMMENDATIONS

Having carried out this study, this writer recommends some next steps and specific actions that need to be implemented to ensure MDG 3 achievement in rural areas is made a reality.

1. Strategic posting of teachers to rural schools is a necessary step towards the achievement of MDG 3. A respondent highlighted in 4.11 reiterated that only the Head teacher of the school was the only qualified teacher at their school for the past 5 years. Following the same, in 4.11, respondents were unhappy that unqualified teachers lacked the skill to deal with sensitive cases amongst children. Given this, MOESAC should post teachers strategically. A sustainable incentive package should be done to be able to lure qualified teachers to teach in rural schools.
2. Sensitisation and empowerment programmes for men are key to achieving MDG 3 in the rural areas. One mother support group member being supported by Camfed testified in section 4.8.1 that now she has a voice as a woman given that she now brings income into the family. Section 4.14 talks of women who are told to take their wealth like cattle to their brothers' homesteads and to their parents' home of origin and not keep these at their own houses. This mentality shows how

women's advancement into the equality and empowerment arena can be affected by their husbands if the husband themselves remain uninformed in the area of education, empowerment and equality.

3. Civil society organisations and government ministries working with women should intensify leadership and capacity building advocacy trainings to encourage woman to demand recognition into decision making bodies. Quota system works very well in Parliament and senate but in rural areas, women are led by men regardless of their potential and strong will.
4. Overall, MDG 3 achievement target should be moved to 2025 if rural women are to be integrated into this developmental goal. The research showed that ward 33 still requires time and recommitment of government and civil society organisations to be able to take MDG 3 from where is currently is to the next level i.e. of incorporating rural women into the national developmental agendas.

6.5 Conclusion

The writer managed to share the insights, knowledge and inspiration drawn from the research. This section gave the researcher an opportunity to reflect on the whole research process and document recommendations, articulate possible next steps and air out the personal value and experience this research has given to the writer.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

African Development Bank Group (ADBG) 1997. Zimbabwe ESAP Project Evaluation Report. Available at:

<http://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Evaluation-Reports/06050223-EN-Zimbabwe>. (Accessed 2 May 2011).

African Partnerships Forum (APF) 2007. Key messages from the APF meeting, Berlin, May 22-23 2007. Available at: <http://www.africapartnershipforum.org/report>. (Accessed 07 March 2009).

Anderson, G. 1993. *Fundamentals of educational research*. London: Falmer.

Arkpabio, IA. 2007. Women NGOs and the socio-economic status of rural women in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. *Journal of Agriculture and Social Sciences* 3(6).

Babbie, E. 2001. *The practice of social research*. Ninth edition. Belmont: Wadsworth Thomson.

Batliwala, S. 1994. The meaning of women's empowerment. New concepts from action. In *Population policies reconsidered: Health empowerment and rights*, edited by G Sen, A Germain & LC Chen. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Bayisenge, J. 2011. Early marriage as a barrier to girls' education: a development challenge in Africa. Available at: http://www.ifu.org/fuwa/docs/early_mariage_pdf. (Accessed on 4 July 2013).

Bernard, Pelto PJ. & Werner, O. 2000. *Social research methods. Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. 4th edition. Oxford: AltaMira.

Black, TR. 1999. *Doing quantitative research in the social sciences: An integrated approach to research design to research design measurement and statistics*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Boesen, JK. & Martin, T. 2007. *Applying a rights based approach. An inspirational guide for civil society*. Copenhagen: Danish Institute for Human Rights (DIFHR).

Brace, I. 2008. *Questionnaire design. How to plan, structure and write survey material for effective market research*. 2nd edition. Derby: Replica

Breins, I. Connell, R. & Eade, I. 2000. *Male roles, masculinity and violence: A culture of peace perspectives*. Paris: UNESCO.

Bryman, A. 2001. *Social research methods*. London: Oxford University Press.

Chapman, DW. & Austin, A. 2002. *Higher education in the developing world: changing contexts and institutional response*. Westport: Greenwood.

Calmorin, LP. & Calmorin, MA. 2008. *Research methods and thesis writing*. 2nd edition. Manila: Rex.

Camfed 2010. Impact Report 2010. *A power-sharing model for systematic change*. Cambridge: Camfed.

Carr-Hill, R, Okech, A, Katahoire, A, Kalooza, T, Ndodole, A & Oxenham, J. 2001. *Adult Literacy programmes in Uganda*. Washington DC: Human Development Africa Region, World Bank.

Cassel, C & Symon, G. 2005. *Essential guide to research methods in organisational research*. California: Sage.

Commission for Rural Communities (CRC) Report. 2012. Barriers to Education, employment and training for young people. www.defra.gov.uk/crc?Barriers-to-education-employment (Accessed 07/08/2013).

Country Analysis Report for Zimbabwe. 2010. UNICEF/Zimbabwe: CSO.

Creswell, JW. 2003. *Qualitative inquiry and research design. Choosing among five traditions*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

De Beer, F & Swanepoel, HJ. 2002. *Introduction to Development Studies*. Pretoria: Oxford University Press.

Denzin, N. 1989. *Interpretive interactionism*. New Bury Park: Sage.

Denzin, NK & Lincoln, YS. 2000. *Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Denzin, NK. 2009. *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods*. New Jersey: Transaction.

DFID 2009. Gender Equality Action Plan. African Division.

[www.dfid.genderinafrica/africa division.htm](http://www.dfid.genderinafrica/africa%20division.htm) (Accessed 10 June 2012).

Dhliwayo, R. 2001. *The impact of public expenditure management under ESAP on basic services: Health and Education*. Department of Economics. Harare: SAPRI.

Dodd, S. & Williamson, PR. 2004. Design and analysis of pilot studies: Recommendations for good practice. *Journal of Evaluation in Clinical Practice*. 10(2).

Dooley, D. 2004. *Social research methods*. New Delhi: Prentice Hall.

Buflor, E. 2012. Women empowerment and gender equality. *Journal of Economic Literature* 2012. 50(4).

Educational Pathways International. 2010. The difference between the rich and poor countries. Available at:

<http://www.educationalpathwaysinternational.org/tertiaryeducation/poverty.htm>

(Accessed on 07 July 2013).

European Commission 2009. *Gender and education (and employment). Gendered imperatives and their implications for women and men. Lessons from research for policy*. NESSE Networks of Experts.

Eurostat 2010. *Analysis of the 10 Core Millennium Development Goals indicators: Methodology and quality issues*. Countries of ECOWAS (including UEMOA) Regional Organisation.

Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) 2004. *The impact of HIV/AIDS on rural livelihoods in Northern Zambia*. Rome: FAO.

Flewitt, R. 2005. Conducting research with young children: Some ethical considerations. *Early Childhood Development and Care* 175(6).

Flick, U. 2002. *An introduction to qualitative research*. London: Sage.

Flick, U. 2007. *Designing qualitative research*. London. Sage.

Global Monitoring Report 2009. *Overcoming inequality: Why governance matters*. London: Oxford University Press.

Goodwin, D. 2007. *Quantitative research in health care*. 3rd edition. Oxford: Blackwell.

Greenbaum, TL. 1998. *Focus group research*. 2nd edition. London: Sage.

Griffin, V. 2003. *Women, education and empowerment*. New Delhi: Discovery.

Grinnell, RM. & Unral, YA. 2011. *Social work research and evaluation*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Gudhlanga, E. Chirimuuta, C. & Bhukuvhani, C. 2012. Towards a gender inclusive curriculum in Zimbabwe's education system: Opportunities and challenges. Department of Languages and Media Studies. Harare: ZOU.

Gupta, S. 1993. *Research methodology and statistical techniques*. New Delhi: Deep.

Hofstee, E. 2006. *Constructing a good dissertation: A practical guide to finishing a master's, MBA or PhD on schedule*. Sandton: EPE.

Hoyda, K. & Ankerbo, S. 2003. Education as a means to women's empowerment. Approaches to development (U-landsalaere). Denmark: Aarhus University.

Human Development Report 2005. *International cooperation at a crossroads. Aid, trade and security in an unequal world*. New York: UNDP.

International Center for Research on Women (ICRW) 2006. *Child marriage and education*. Washington DC: ICRW.

James, N. & Busher, H. 2006. *Credibility, authenticity and voice: dilemmas in online interviewing*. London: Sage.

Kabeer, N. 1994. *Reversed realities: Gender hierarchies in development thought*. London: Verso.

Kanyongo, GY. 2005. Zimbabwe's educational system reforms: Successes and challenges. *International Educational Journal*, 6(1).

Kehler, J. 2006. *Women and poverty: The South African experience*. London: New Jersey.

Kessels, U. 2005. Fitting into the stereotype: How gender stereotyped perceptions of prototype peers relate to liking school subjects. *European Journal of Psychology of Education* XX(3)

Key, I. 1997. *Research design in occupational education*. Oklahoma: Oklahoma State University Press.

KiMoon, B. 2007. *Millennium Development Goals Report 2007*. New York: UN.

Krueger, RA. 1994. *Focus groups – A practical guide for applied research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Kruger, RA. 2000. *Focus groups à A practical guide for applied research*. London: Sage.

Lancaster, D. Dodd, S. & Williamson, R. 2004. National Centre for the Replacement, Refinement and Reduction of Animals in Research. www.nc3rs.org.uk (Accessed 12 August 2012)

Lefvre, J, Quiroga, R. & Murphy, E. 2007. *Future options foreclosed: Girls who marry early*. Washington DC: World Bank.

Lewis, I. 2012. Education for disabled people in Ethiopia and Rwanda. *Paper commissioned for the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2012. Reaching the marginalised*. Rwanda: UNESCO.

Lewis, J & Ritchie, J. 2003. *Qualitative practice: A guide for social sciences students and researchers*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Lincoln, ND, Travers, C, Ackers P & Wilkinson, A. 2002. The meaning of empowerment: the interdisciplinary etymology of a new management concept. *International Journal of Management Reviews*. 4(2).

- Mandina, S. 2012: Quality rural secondary school education in Zimbabwe: Challenges and remedies. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies* (JETERAPS) 3(5).
- Makoni, C. 2011. *Overview of the Zimbabwe Legal System*. Harare: Government Publishers.
- Makoni, RD. 2000. Effects of the economic structural adjustment programme (1991-1993) on the participation of secondary school girls in Zimbabwe. *Zambezia Journal*, xxvii (ii).
- Manson, J. 2004. The legal context. In *Doing research with children and young people*. Edited by S Fraser, V Lewis, S Ding, M Kellet, & V Robinson. London. Sage.
- Marshal, MN. 1996. *Sampling for qualitative research*. London: Oxford University Press.
- McFadden, P. 1999. *Reflections on gender issues in Africa*. Harare: SAPES Trust.
- MDG Achievement Fund. 2012. *5th Consolidated Annual Progress Report On Activities Implemented Under MDG-F*. New York: UNDP.
- Miles, MB, Huberman, MA. 1994. *Qualitative Data Analysis: An experienced source book* (2nd edition). Beverley Hills, Sage.
- Millennium Development Goals Status Report, Zimbabwe 2007*. Harare: CSO.
- Millennium Development Goals Status Report, Zimbabwe 2010*. Harare: CSO.

MOESAC 2005. *Zimbabwe National Strategic Plan for the Education of Girls, Orphans and Other Vulnerable Children 2005–2010*. Harare: Government Publishers.

Morgan, DL. & Smircich, L. 1998. *Focus group as qualitative research*. London: Sage.

Mouton, J. 2001. *How to succeed in your master's and doctoral studies: A Southern African guide and resource book*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

MOWAGCD 2007. *National Gender Policy Implementation Strategy and Work Plan*. Harare: Government Publishers.

Mukhopadhyay, M Smyth I. & March, C. 1999. *A guide to gender analysis frameworks*. London: Oxfam.

Nai, E. 2003. The freedom to women empowerment: Exploring the relation between microcredit and education in Bangladesh. *National University of Singapore, Columbia Undergraduate Journal of South Asian Studies*.
<http://www.columbia.edu/cu/cujas/NAI.pdf>. (Accessed 17 August 2013)

Narayan, D. 2005. *Measuring empowerment: Cross disciplinary perspectives*. International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Washington DC: World Bank.

Nassbaum, M. 2003. Women's education: A Global challenge. *Journal of Women in Culture and Society* 29 (2).

- Nath, SR. 2001. Enrolment and Literacy. In *Counting the hills, assessing development in Chittagong Hill Tracts*, edited by M Rail, & AMR Chowdhury. Dhaka: University Press.
- Noor, KBM. 2008 Case study: A strategic research methodology. *American Journal of Applied Sciences* 5(11).
- Nussbaum, M. 2000. Women's capabilities and social justice. *Journal of Human Development*, 1(2).
- Oxaal, Z & Baden, S.1997.*Gender and Development: Definitions. Approaches and implications for policy*. Brighton: IDS
- Patton, M. 2002. *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. 3rd edition. California: Sage.
- Putch, C & Potter, J. 2004. *Focus group discussions*. Edited by G Nigel. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Punch, KF. 2004. *Introduction to social research, quantitative and qualitative approaches*. London: Sage.
- Ranjit, K. 2005. *Research methodology. A step by step guide for beginners*. London: Sage.
- Raynor, J. 2006. 'Educating girls in Bangladesh: watering a neighbour's tree?' In M Aikman & E Unterhalter (eds). *Beyond access: Transforming policy and practice for gender equality in education*. Oxford: Oxfam.

Reeves, H & Badden, S. 2000. *Gender and development concepts and definitions*, University of Sussex: Bridge.

Reilly, N. 2005. United Nations 'Beijing Platform for Action (1995-2005): Local–global political spaces, NGO activism and governmental responses in the Republic of Ireland. *Irish Political Studies Journal*, 20(2).

Robeyns, I. 2003. Sen's capability approach and gender inequality: Selecting relevant capabilities. *Feminist Economics*, 9(2–3).

Rowlands, J. 1995. *Questioning empowerment: Working with women in Honduras*. Cape Town: Oxfam.

Rowlands, J. 1997. *Working with women in Honduras*. Oxford: Oxfam Press.

Rundblad, G. 2006. Recruiting a representative sample.
www.appliedlinguistics.org.uk. (Accessed 25 November 2012).

SADEV Report 2010. *Gender equality in and through education*. Sweden: Karlstad.

Seale, C. 2006. *Researching society and culture*. London: Sage.

Shizha, E & Kariwo, MT. 2011. *Education and Development in Zimbabwe. A social, political and economic analysis*. Rotterdam: Sense.

Sleeter, CE. 1991. Reconstructing schools for multi-cultural education. *Journal of Teacher Education* 1(4).

Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa. Available at:
http://www.afrimap.org/english/images/treaty/AU_GenderSolemnDec04.pdf.
(Accessed 26 August 2013).

Springs, M. 2010. *Understanding consent in research involving children: Theoretical issues; a handbook for human research ethics committees and researchers*.

Parkville, Victoria, Australia: Murdoch Children's Research Institute.

Stromquist, NP. 2008. Adult learning and the politics of change: Feminist organisation and educational action in Latin America. In *Education and equality in a global context. Conceptual frameworks and policy perspectives*, edited by S Fennel & M Arnot. London: Routledge.

Stromquist, NP. 2009. Literacy and empowerment – Evidence of the link and its implication for action. Occasional papers in Education and Lifelong Learning. *An International Journal*, 4(1–2).

Subrahmanian, R. 2003. *Gender equality in education: Definitions and measurements*. New York: UNESCO.

Takyi, A. 2008. *Poverty reduction and gender parity in education: An alternative Approach*. Edited by S. Fennel & M. Arnot. New York: Routledge.

Tasli, K. 2007. A conceptual framework for gender and development studies. From welfare to empowerment. Vienna: Sudwind Verlag.

Tongco, M. 2008. Purposive sampling as a tool for informant selection. *Ethnobotany Research and Applications. A Journal of plants, people and applied research* 5(1).

Towindo, L. 2011. Zim now fed up with sanctions. *The Herald* 18 March 2011: 5.

UNDP 2007. *Gender equality strategy 2008–2011*. New York: UNDP Bureau.

UNDP 2008(a). *Gender equality strategy 2008*. New York: Oxford University Press.

UNDP 2008(b). *Empowered and equal, gender equality strategy 2008-2011*. New York: Oxford University Press.

UNDP 2010. *Beyond the midpoint: achieving the MDGs*. New York: UNDP.

UNDP 2012. *Millennium Development Goals Campaign: Time to help others*.

www.un.org.pl.rozwoj/doc/en/GoalsMDG (Accessed 12 December 12).

UNDP 2012. *Progress report on women empowerment*. New York: Oxford University Press.

UNESCO 2004. *Gender development and MDGs Report*. Harare: UNESCO.

UNESCO 2007. *Education for all global monitoring report 2008*. New York: UNESCO.

UNESCO 2007. *A human rights-based approach to education for all*. New York: Unicef.

UNFPA 2011. *Empowering women: Promoting gender equality*. New York: UNFPA.

UNFPA 2012. MDG 3: *Promote gender equality and women empowerment*.
www.unfpa.org.br/lacodm/arquivos/MDG 3/pdf. (Accessed 3 October 2013).

UNICEF 1999. *The state of the world's children: Education*. New York: UNICEF.

UNICEF 2001. Innocenti Digest 7: Early marriage, child spouses. Florence: UNICEF
Innocenti research centre.

UNICEF 2011. Annual Report for Zimbabwe. www.unicef.org/zimbabwe/Zimbabwe
2010[annualreportsptember2011.pdf](#). (Accessed 2 August 2013).

UNIDO Annual Report. 2008. Industrial Development Board. Thirty sixth session.
www.unido.org/fileadmin/user_media/AboutUnido/English.pdf. (Accessed 12
September 2012).

Upadhye, J & Madan, A. 2012. Entrepreneurship and women empowerment.
Evidence from Pune city 2012 *International Conference on Economics, Business and
Marketing Management. IPEDR 29*. Singapore: LACSIT.

Van Bueren, G. 1998. *International law on the rights of the child*. London: Martinus
Nijhoff.

Unterhalter, E. 2012. Mutable meanings: Gender equality in education and
international rights frameworks. *The Equal Rights Review*. 8(67).

Vedova, M. 1989. Effects of the Structural Adjustment Programme (1991–1993) on
the participation of secondary school girls in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Zambezia* (2000),
xxvii (ii).

World Bank Report 2005. *World Development Report: Equity and Development*. Washington DC: Oxford University Press.

Yin, R. 1993. *Case study research: Design and methods*. California: Sage.

Zimbabwe 2002. *Census provisional profile for Mashonaland Province*. Harare: Government Publishers.

Zimbabwe 2010. *MDG Progress Report: 2011*. Harare: Government Publishers.

Zimbabwe 2012. *MDG Progress Report: 2013*. Harare: Government Publishers.

ZimStat 2012. *Census 2012 Report*. Harare: Government Printers.

Zindi, C. 2005. *Education and development in Zimbabwe*. Harare: Sense.

APPENDIX 1: ONE ON ONE QUESTIONNAIRE

Sex of interviewee.....

Age of interviewee.....

Highest level of education: Primary Secondary Diploma, Degree, Other: Please specify.....

Date questionnaire completed.....

Date questionnaire reviewed.....

Instructions to the interviewer

1. Ensure sampling procedure has been followed before starting the interview
2. Greet the respondent and ask if they are willing to participate.
3. Tell the respondent approximate time the interview will take,
4. Before commencing with the questionnaire, complete the first section of the questionnaire.
5. Read the questions the way they appear in the questionnaire and give explanations where they are needed.
6. Do not skip any questions unless that is what is expected.
7. Record the answers that the respondent gives rather than making up what you think the respondent is saying or what you think they should have said.
8. Ensure all questions are answered unless if they do not apply.

9. Give opportunity for respondents to ask questions or make comments if need be.
10. Remember to thank the interviewee after the interview.

Education

1. What in your opinion are the major causes of girls dropping out of school in this community?
2. Please compare girls' and boys' opportunities to access and complete primary and secondary education. Please explain any similarities or differences?
3. What roles are the following agencies playing to keep girls in school?
 - a. Camfed
 - b. MOESAC
4. Is Camfed's support enough to see girls access, retain and complete primary and secondary education?
5. Is MOESAC support enough to see girls in school?
6. What can Camfed do to improve the support they are giving to girls and women
7. What can MOESAC do to improve girls' education in rural areas?

Gender Equality

What do you understand by the term gender?

What do you understand by gender Equality? Does gender equality exist in the culture of this community?

If yes, can you please explain by giving examples of gender equality existence in this community?

If your answer on **Question 4 is No**, please explain why gender equality does not exist in the culture of this community?

How are you expected to enhance gender equality in your role? (**Question relevant only to Community leaders**)

How does your role as a community leader enhance gender equality?

What are women in this ward particularly doing to attain gender equality?

In this ward, which organisations are working towards promoting gender equality and what are they doing?

How and what would you want these organisations to do to promote gender equality in this community?

On a scale of 1-5 with 1 being the greatest and 5 the least how you would rate the work being done by organisations and ministries you mentioned above. What recommendations would you give to organisations or the government of Zimbabwe in their programming of economic empowerment interventions?

Economic empowerment

What do you understand by the term economic empowerment?

In your own opinion, which gender would you say is more economically empowered between men and women in this ward?

What are the reasons for your answer above?

What does the Ward 33 community consider to be the most valuable resource / assets in a home?

Do men and women have equal access to the valuable resources in the home?

Which valuable resources do women own?

Which valuable resources do men specifically own?

Which assets do women control in the home?

Which resources in the home do men control?

If there is a difference in question 26&27, please explain the difference.

Leadership

In your position, how are you working to empower women?

Please give examples of what you have done so far to ensure economic empowerment of women is realised.

What challenges have you faced so far in your pursuit of economic empowerment of women in this ward?

How do you think the challenges noted above can be overcome?

What recommendations would you give to the government of Zimbabwe in their programming of economic empowerment interventions for women?

What recommendations would you give to organisations working in this community on economic empowerment?

Thank you.

APPENDIX 2: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION WARM UP QUESTIONNAIRE

Date of Focus group discussion.....

Name of rapporteur.....

Sex of respondent.....

Age of respondent.....

Highest level of education.....

Marital status.....

Questions:

Which organisations do you know that are currently implementing activities in this ward and what are they doing?

What was your last involvement with an organisation or government institution that was doing economic empowerment or education programmes? What was the involvement about?

Write down 3 things that can be done in this ward in order to empower women economically?

If you were an MP or a councillor for this ward, which of the above 3 would you start implementing and why?

APPENDIX 3: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION QUESTIONNAIRE GUIDE

Education:

What in your opinion are the major causes of girls' dropping out of school in this community?

Do girls access and complete primary and secondary education in the same rate in this community? Please explain your answer.

What role is Camfed playing to ensure girls remain in school?

What role is MOESAC playing to ensure girls remain in school?

Is Camfed's support to keep girls in school enough?

Is MOESAC's role enough to keep girls in school?

What can Camfed, MOESAC do to improve the support they give to girls?

Do girls and boys have the same opportunities of acceding and remaining in school?

Yes/No

If your answer above is yes, please explain this difference.

Gender Equality and women Empowerment

What is gender equality?

What is economic empowerment?

Do you think there is a relationship between education, gender equality and empowerment of women? Please explain your answer.

Describe the assets/possessions an economically empowered woman should have in this community?

Describe assets an economically empowered man in this community should have.

Do you see any difference between what men and women own? Yes/No

If your answer above is YES, please explain the difference.

What are the barriers to women economic empowerment in this community?

What are the barriers to gender equality in this community?

What suggestions do you have for these barriers to be redressed?

Decision making

What decisions do women make in the home?

What decisions do women make in the community?

Which decisions do women need to consult and why?

Status Quo

What government programmes are there to enhance women economic empowerment in this community?

What are the government programmes you know in Ward 33 of Mt Darwin that are working on issues that have to do with gender equality and economic empowerment?

What activities are being implemented by Camfed in this ward?

If asked to rank the effectiveness of these programmes, what will your opinion on a scale of 1-5, with 1 being the most effective and 5 being the least effective,

Traditional Practices

List any practices that do not encourage education of girls in the following areas:

In the home:

Community:

School:

Please explain any other practices you did not mention above.

In your opinion, how can these practices be addressed.

Recommendations

What recommendations would you give to the following stakeholders to allow them to work effectively with women in Ward 33?

Camfed

MOESAC

MOWAGCD

What role can the Ward 33 community itself play in enhancing their girls' education, gender equality and economic empowerment?

APPENDIX 4: SUPPLEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Sex of respondent: Female / Male **(Circle appropriate)**

Marital status: Single ☐ Married ☐ Widowed ☐ Divorced ☐

Age bracket of respondent: Below 20 years 20-30 years 31-40 years 41-65years

Education of respondent: Primary ☐ Secondary ☐ Tertiary ☐

1. *In your opinion, what is economic empowerment of women?*
2. *What is gender equality?*
3. *Are opportunities for gender equality and economic empowerment the same in this ward? Please explain your answer.*
4. *Are there any civil society organisations implementing women empowerment and gender equality programmes in this ward?*

Yes

No

I do not know

4 b. *If your answer above was YES, which organisations are these?*

5. *Are there any government ministries implementing women empowerment and gender equality programmes in this ward?*

Yes

No

I do not know

- 5b. *If your answer above was YES, which ministries are these?*
6. *Are there are programmes being implemented by the following stakeholders whose aim is to empower women economically and ensure gender equality?*
- a) Camfed
 - b) MOESAC
 - c) MOWAGCD
7. *Besides what you have outlined above what other interventions would you want to see the stakeholders above implement?*
- a. Camfed
 - b. MOESAC
 - c. MOWAGCD
8. *As a community member for Ward 33, would you say the assistance given MOESAC, Camfed, and MOWAGCD enough? (Let the respondent bring out any other programmes that can be done by these organisations).*
- a) Camfed
 - b) MOESAC
 - c) MOWAGCD
9. *Who else besides Camfed, MOWAGCD or MOESAC can assist women in this community to become economically independent?*
10. *Is there any other information you may want to share with me in regard to the discussion we have had above?*

Thank you for your valuable time.

